BACKGROUND READINGS

WORKSHOP ON
CULTURAL HERITAGE RESOURCES
IN
MANITOBA'S PROVINCIAL PARKS

February 1988

Participants - Brief Biographies

Willard Anderson

Mr. Anderson has been active in the Manitoba Parks Branch for sixteen years and holds a M.Ed. degree. Special interests include approaches to public interpretation, the promotion of wildlife protection and advancing an awareness of the history of Native cultures.

Elizabeth Ballantyne

Associated with Foster Advertising, Elizabeth Ballantyne is a founding member of the River Bankers Association of Winnipeg, an organization devoted to the reclamation and planning of riverbank property.

Chief Jim Bear

Mr. Bear is Director of the South East Resources Development Council and has a strong interest in the cultural resources associated with the history of the Native Peoples. He has been involved in the planning of the Boulder Mosaics in the Whiteshell Provincial Park.

Dean Clark

Mr. Clark is the Director of the Heritage Branch for the Saskatchewan Dept. of Parks, Recreation and Culture. Mr. Clark has also been associated with the Alberta Historic Sites Service where he was Director.

Dr. Ian W. Dickson

A fisheries biologist by training, Dr. Dickson has had extensive experience in management of natural and cultural resources. His previous assignments include that of General Manager of the Red River Agreement for Recreation and Conservation (A.R.C.), a major inter-governmental initiative aimed at the reclamation of heritage sites along this historic waterway. Currently he is Director of the Conservation Districts Authority of Manitoba Natural Resources, which promotes sound soil, water and wildlife management in Manitoba's farming districts.

Bruce Donaldson

Mr. Donaldson is currently the Chief of History Research for the Historic Resources Branch, Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Recreation. Economic and Social history are special interests, and Mr. Donaldson has completed extensive research on the land-use of the York Factory area.

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Derek Doyle

Mr. Doyle is Assistant Deputy Minister, Manitoba Natural Resources, and is a past Director of Manitoba Parks. Mr. Doyle served on the Federal Task Force on Park Establishment initiated by the Federal Minister of the Environment, Tom MacMillan.

Donna Dul

Ms. Dul is the Director of the Historic Resources Branch of Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Recreation, and has been active in the Branch since its inception in 1974. Charged with implementing the new Heritage Resources Act (1986), Ms. Dul has strong interests in policy development and in promoting heritage programs at the community level.

Neil Einarson

Currently the Chief of Architectural History, Historic Resources Branch, Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Recreation, Mr. Einarson holds a degree in Environmental Studies from the University of Manitoba and has studied architectural history at the University of Essex, England. Mr. Einarson is also secretary of the Society for the Study of Architecture in Canada.

Don Epstein

Mr. Epstein is the principal of Epstein Associations of Winnipeg, and is the consultant to the Steering Committee. A graduate of Princeton University and the Royal Danish Academy, Mr. Epstein has had considerable experience in the planning of parks and in assessing rural land use. Mr. Epstein will be co-ordinating the production of a public discussion document based on the workshop results.

Gary Forma

Mr. Forma is currently the Supervisor, Visitor Services, Ontario Parks and Recreational Areas Branch. An archaeologist by training, Mr. Forma has worked extensively in Alberta as well as Ontario. He is the author of Caring for History: Managing Cultural Resources in Ontario Provincial Parks.

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Dr. Jean Friesen

Jean Friesen teaches history at the University of Manitoba. The Past-Chairperson of the Manitoba Heritage Council, her interests include Native history, museology and heritage resource planning. She currently sits as a member of the Forks Renewal Board, a major inter-governmental initiative aimed at reclaiming the historic area situated at the confluence of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers.

Tom Heggie

Mr. Heggie is Director - Operations, Environment Canada Parks, Winnipeg. A past superintendent of Banff National Park, Mr. Heggie has a wide knowledge of Canadian landscapes, some of which was learned while working for the Hudson's Bay Company.

Dr. John Lehr

John Lehr is Chairman of the Manitoba Heritage Council and a Professor of Geography at the University of Winnipeg. Dr. Lehr research interests in the history of prairie settlement patterns and rural architecture.

Graham A. MacDonald

Mr. MacDonald has worked as an historian and planner for a number of public agencies including the Ontario Parks Branch, the Ontario Ministry of Heritage and Recreation and Parks Canada. Between 1982 and 1987 he worked as a private heritage consultant. Currently he is Acting Advisor on Education for the Historic Resources Branch, Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Recreation.

Mr. David McDowell

Mr. McDowell teaches high school at John Taylor Collegiate and is Chairman of Heritage Winnipeg, an organization concerned with the preservation of historic buildings in the City of Winnipeg. Mr. McDowell also serves on the Board of the Manitoba Museum of Man and Nature.

John McFarland

Mr. McFarland served as Director of the Historic Resources Branch of Manitoba between 1974 and 1984. Since that time he has been Historic Resources Planner for Manitoba Parks.

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Dr. Frits Pannekoek

Currently the Director of the Alberta Historic Sites Service of Alberta Culture, Dr. Pannekoek has also worked as the Chief of Historical Research for Environment Canada Parks, Prairie Region. Dr. Pannekoek is well known for his published work on the history of the fur trade and on the early Red River Settlement.

Leo Pettipas

Mr. Pettipas is the Chief of the Archaeology Division, Historic Resources Branch, Department of Culture, Heritage and Recreation, a position he has held for almost thirteen years. He holds degrees from St. Mary's University, Halifax, the University of Manitoba and the University of Calgary. Major interests include archaeological resource management and public archaeology, and he has published extensively on the Paleo-Indian, or Early Prehistoric, period of Manitoba.

Mr. Paul Thistle

Paul Thistle is curator of the Little Northern Museum in The Pas, Manitoba. Mr. Thistle has special interests in the history of the fur trade and is the author of a recent book, Indian European Trade Relations on the Lower Saskatchewan.

Greg Thomas

Mr. Thomas is an historic park planner for Environment Canada Parks, Winnipeg. A specialist in fur-trade history, Mr. Thomas has also worked on northern resource landscapes such as Dawson City and the Chilkoot Trail. Mr. Thomas is also President of the Manitoba Historical Society.

Prof. Harvey Williams

A Past-President of the Manitoba Naturalists Society and the Chairman of the Society's Parks Committee, Mr. Williams teaches at the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba. In addition to an interest in flora and fauna conservation, Mr. Williams is also interested in computer applications in education.

Brian Woolsey

Currently employed at Environment Canada Parks, Ottawa, Brian Woolsey is Director of Historic Park Systems Planning. Mr. Woolsey has also been associated with the Prairie Region of Environment Canada Parks as an historic park planner and with the Ontario Parks Branch as an historian and planner.

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 WORKSHOP OBJECTIVES

1.1.1 To provide the basis for a long-term vision for the management of cultural heritage resources in existing or future provincial parks.

1.1.2 To identify broad directions for an action plan to guide us towards the vision.

1.1 WORKSHOP OBJECTIVES

1.1.1 To provide the basis for a long-term vision for the management of cultural heritage resources in existing or future provincial parks.

1.1.2 To identify broad directions for an action plan to guide us towards the vision.

1.2 WORKSHOP TIMETABLE

MARCH 3, 1988

10:30 a.m.	Informal Get Together
12:00 noon	Lunch
1:00 p.m.	Opening Remarks - Derek Doyle, Assistant Deputy Minister, Natural Resources
1:30 p.m. to 4:30 p.m.	SESSION I - BUILDING THE VISION 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Group Work (A and B) The future of cultural heritage resource management in Manitoba's parks will be examined: a) If we continue as is, without further intervention; and b) The ideal or desired future -Our Vision.
4:30 p.m.	1.3 Plenary Consensus Building
6:00 p.m.	Dinner and Discussion
8:30 p.m. to 9:30 p.m.	SESSION I WRAP-UP - THE VISION

MARCH 4, 1988

8:30 a.m. to 10:30 a.m.	SESSION II - ACHIEVING THE VISION 2.1 Introduction 2.2 Group Work (C and D) Groups will be asked to recognize what the barriers and constraints are, how these might be overcome and then what actions are appropriate over the next 3 to 5 years.
10:30 a.m.	2.3 Plenary Consensus Building
12:00 noon	Luncheon
1:00 p.m.	SESSION II - WRAP UP
1:30 p.m.	Conclusion - Where We Go From Here

1.3 A GENERAL LIST OF QUESTIONS

1.3.1 SESSION I - BUILDING THE VISION

1.3.1.1 Are there major gaps in existing legislation, policy and programming for protection and presentation of cultural resources in Manitoba's Provincial Parks?

1.3.1.2 Should we be preserving only original natural or cultural landscapes? Do artificial scenes have a role to play, e.g. Beaudry Provincial Park Plan?

1.3.1.3 Are we to encourage preservation from further impact, from misguided restoration, or overly energetic reconstruction?

1.3.1.4 Should we encourage preservation for research, for education or for mass appeal? Are these compatible purposes?

1.3.1.5 Should the Eco-Museum be part of our Vision?

1.3.1.6 Are there experiences in Canada that are applicable in Manitoba?

1.3.1.7 What can be learned from the British experience of developing National Parks on lands of mixed ownership and land use?

1.3.1.8 Are there salient features from other nations that might be useful to consider for Manitoba?

1.3.1.9 What should the relationship be between local, provincial and federal initiatives, i.e. resources of local, provincial and national significance?

1.3.1.10 What is your vision of how parks will be preserving and presenting cultural heritage resources in the year 2010?

1.3.2. SESSION II - ACHIEVING THE VISION

1.3.2.1 If a provincial cultural heritage park system is deemed desirable, what mechanism is best for implementation?

1.3.2.2 How should sensitive archaeological sites be treated in a cultural heritage park system?

1.3.2.3 How should resources be identified and priorized for inclusion in a cultural heritage park system? How do we select new parks? Does system planning work?

1.3.2.4 What is the role of communities in protection of resources, presentation and program delivery? What is the role of a municipal system of heritage parks in relation to the larger provincial system?

1.3.2.5 How much do we preserve - all features, or representative relic features?

1.3.2.6 Should parks continue to be guided through the preparation of park-specific master plans, or is there also room for guidance through local ordinances and local public participation?

1.3.2.7 Should centralized national and provincial tax pools be the main source of funding heritage parks, or should a greater range of funding sources be established, including municipal, charitable, and private commercial?

1.3.2.8 How do we classify heritage resources, e.g heritage villages, in situ resources, visual resources, etc.? What does each of these classes require in financial terms?

1.3.2.9 Can new site selection be integrated with on-going tourism strategies?

1.3.2.10 What has been the general experience with co-operating associations?

1.3.2.11 What is the role of non-government bodies in funding, planning and running heritage sites or in assisting the management of heritage resources within existing parks?

1.3.2.12 What is the role of urban centres in marketing and promoting heritage parks and resources?

2.0 Compendium of Background Information

2.1 MANITOBA PARKS BRANCH

2.1.1 WHAT ARE CULTURAL HERITAGE PARKS?

"The ultimate goal of preserving the physical reminders of our history is for the educational information that they contain, and the sense of community pride and identity that they foster . . . role of the government is as a "keeper" or "trustee" of heritage resources for the people. We must provide the planning framework that protects heritage resources for future generations. We must provide for the collection and preservation of the basis data of our history so that they are available for all Manitobans to ponder, to learn from and to cherish as part of their identity."[1]

The American Association of State and Local History identifies the following,

i. The documentary site identifies "an important historical event, or the life or lives of a person or family. This usually - but not always - means that we should do our utmost to restore the structure or place to its precise condition at a specific point in time."

ii. The representative site helps the visitor "understand a period of history or a way of life. Thus the site does not have to have been associated with a historic event or person. What it must do is typify many other sites in its period. Its restoration should be based upon research no less careful than that of a documentary site.

iii. The aesthetic site includes structures that are appropriate for preservation because of their distinctive design and form, and historic buildings for which the interpretive focus is on the aesthetic beauty rather than on history.

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[1] The Honourable Eugene Kostyra, Minister of Culture, Heritage and Recreation.

The Provincial Parks Branch's system plan, A Heritage for Today and Tomorrow defines Heritage Parks as "landscapes or sites that are one of a kind in Manitoba, that are to preserve and interpret key elements of Manitoba's natural and cultural history and provide a range of outdoor recreation opportunities and experiences that emphasize the appreciation of heritage values." This means that a park or site can contain in situ resources such as Hecla Village, the River Road, Asessippi Village, Grand Valley and Tie Creek; or relocated heritage structures such as at St. Norbert; or be a museum such as at Lockport and Nutimik, and Kennedy House. These may include visitor centres such as at Spruce Woods and Hecla.

Heritage areas should emphasize preservation, guardianship, education and interpretation as their prime objectives along with outdoor recreational opportunities and experiences that emphasize the appreciation of these values.

2.1.2 PARK SYSTEMS' CULTURAL HERITAGE RESOURCES

The Crown is the largest owner of heritage properties in the Province. It is thus incumbent on the Crown to show leadership, a responsible attitude and, ultimately, to be held accountable for the resources under its control. Not every building, site or artifact can or should be saved, but the opportunity must be provided for government to make conscious decisions on what and where cultural resources should be retained.

Manitoba's Provincial Parks system was established in the early 1960's. This parks system has within its boundaries numerous known and presumed archaeological sites that date back at least 6,000 years. These are remnants of such structures as homesteads, bridges, mines and cemeteries, that are known to a few but represent significant cultural resources that should at least be recorded, if not stabilized. In fact, some of these sites may warrant identification and or designation as Provincial Historic Sites.

More specifically, in Asessippi Provincial Park is a townsite dating back to the 1880's; in Whiteshell Provincial Park are a number of significant boulder formations of which little is known, but yet are unique to the North American continent; in Hecla Provincial Park are remnants of a village dating back to the 1870's, and Indian Ceremonial Grounds on Black Island; in Spruce Woods Provincial Park are the remnants of Pine Fort; and the Assiniboine-Souris area is significant in terms of archaeology, transportation, fur trade, agriculture and settlement history.

In 1985 a cultural resources inventory for parks was begun. Listed below are sites from the archaeological inventory for the Historic Resources Branch as well as identified sites in Provincial Parks. This is a minimum total that will certainly increase as these inventories are continued.

Park	Number of Sites
Asessippi	26
Birds Hill	12
Camp Morton	5
Clearwater	11
Duck Mountain	33
Elk Island	1
Grand Beach	5
Grand Valley	1
Grass River	38
Hecla	37
Nopiming	166
Pinawa	2
St. Norbert	5
Spruce Woods	122
Turtle Mountain	24
Red River Corridor	9
Whiteshell	284

The Parks Branch has also been responsible for the following.

i. Stabilizations
2 of 4 buildings at St. Norbert.
11 of 35 buildings at Hecla.
NOTE: Needing stabilization are 12 buildings in Spruce Woods Provincial Heritage Park; 6 in Asessippi Provincial Park; 40 in Whiteshell; and 15 in Duck Mountain.

ii. Restorations
2 of 4 buildings at St. Norbert.
1 of 30 buildings at Hecla.
2 of 9 buildings on the River Road Heritage Parkway.

iii. 17 of approximately 65 needed inventories of existing proposed Provincial Parks and other sites.

iv. 1 impact assessment.

v. 5 management plans.

vi. 1 review of estimates in the last four fiscal years.

vii. 4 interim management guidelines.

viii. 5 of 9 cultural resource theme studies required.

There were no interpretive or conservation plans prepared. Although no buildings were evaluated, an evaluation system has been prepared.

2.1.3 POLICY AND PAST PRACTICE ON CULTURAL HERITAGE PARKS

The Provincial Park Lands Act (SM1972, C.67-P20) directs the Government of Manitoba to "establish, develop and maintain a system of provincial park lands."[1] These lands are to be developed and maintained for, among other things, "the preservation of specified areas and objects that are of . . . cultural . . . interest."[2] The act also directs the government to include provincial heritage parks in its system.[3]

In 1984 the Manitoba Parks Branch's A Heritage for Today and Tomorrow established a systems plan to encompass natural, wilderness, recreation and heritage parks together with recreational trailways, parkways and waterways. The plan provides the framework within which various categories of parklands will be developed, and identifies the broad purpose and role of existing and proposed parks. The document defines heritage parks as "landscapes or sites that are one of a kind in Manitoba, that are to preserve and interpret key elements of Manitoba's natural and cultural history and provide a range of outdoor recreational opportunities and experiences that emphasize the appreciation of heritage values."[4] The plan recognizes the importance of Manitoba's cultural heritage and emphasizes the need to develop a systems plan that focuses exclusively on these resources.

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[1] Section 2.1.

[2] Section 3.2.6.

[3] Section 12.1.vii.

[4] p. 38.

Recreation parkways are defined as especially attractive recreation corridors designed for use by motorized vehicles in winter and summer. They link historical or natural features and also include waysides, overlooks or drop-off points for side trips.[1]

Recreation waterways are defined as travelways that include rivers chosen for their attractive natural features, historical significance or exceptional recreation capacity.[2]

The systems plan also defines natural, wilderness and recreation parks and recreation trailways, all of which can have cultural heritage sites within their boundaries.

The 1985 Roles and Missions Statement of the Department of Natural Resources says that among other things the Manitoba Parks Branch is "to ensure that the park system adequately preserves the unique and representative cultural and natural features of Manitoba." This places a particular emphasis on roles of preservation and guardianship of the human and natural heritage placed in the care of this department.

The Parks Branch is responsible for a variety of cultural heritage resources throughout park sites, parkways and waterways, and the following is but a brief listing.

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[1] Idem.

[2] Idem.

i. On-site cultural heritage resources in parks include Hecla Village, Asessippi Village, Tie Creek.

ii. Heritage Parks include St. Norbert.

iii. Museums include those at Lockport and Nutimik.

iv. Parkways include River Road.

A Heritage for Today and Tomorrow points out the imbalance in the current Provincial Parks system with considerable emphasis being placed on commercial harvests, natural parks, recreation parks and wayside parks. To present a more balanced system, heritage parks, parkways, trailways, waterways and wilderness parks need to be emphasized in any future park acquisition.

There has also been a neglect of such places as Asessippi Village and Hecla Village (until recently); and, arguably, a lack of sensitivity to such sites as Lockport and Grand Valley where proactive attitudes or scheduled, but nonconforming, activities cause difficulties; the former is exemplified at Grand Valley with the installation of a water slide and the latter at Lockport with the installation of an underground sprinkler system.

2.2 MANITOBA HISTORIC RESOURCES BRANCH

The conditions required for the establishment of the Historic Resources Branch in Manitoba did not mature until the early 1970's. Canada's and Manitoba's centennials, the rapid growth of museums resulting from a new grant program introduced in 1970, and the signing of the Federal-Provincial Agreement for Recreation and Conservation (A.R.C.), all provided the context for the establishment of the Historic Resources Branch in 1974. At that time the Province of Manitoba was committed to a number of projects which presupposed heritage resource management capability. These projects include a heritage preservation demonstration project under the A.R.C. agreement with the historic Bohemier House; archaeological reconnaissance of the flood-threatened South Indian Lake area in Northern Manitoba; and grants to museums. Originally, the Historic Resources Branch was part of a department having an environmental control and development role. While now within the Manitoba Department of Culture, Heritage and Recreation, environmental planning issues still continue to be an important part of the Historic Resources Branch's program. This role has been strengthened since 1986 when the act of 1967 was repealed and replaced by The Historic Resources Act. The new act empowers the province to promote

i. the identification of potential sites, structures and objects which may be of heritage value;

ii. the protection and preservation of discovered heritage resources;

iii the interpretation of significant finds; and

iv. the planning of heritage programs, policies and effective administrative procedures.

An important aspect of the new act is the extension of powers to the municipal level where municipalities may establish heritage councils and pass appropriate bylaws in keeping with The Heritage Resources Act.

As in the Province of Ontario, the Historic Resources Branch is strongly distinguished from those departments which administer park lands and other land units. Thus, the Historic Resources Branch is limited in terms of its direct land-management capability. There have been situations where the Historic Resources Branch has come into possession of actual heritage sites and parks, but these have been turned over fairly quickly to departments with land-management field resources.

As in a number of other provinces, the Manitoba Historic Resources Branch retains a strong interest in the dedication of provincially-significant sites, but there is now an expanded mandate to promote regional and municipal sites and to promote appreciation and protection of cultural resources of a more representative nature on public and private lands. Increased opportunities now exist for the Branch to work co-operatively with others through special land-use acts such as The Conservation Districts Act and The Manitoba Habitat Heritage Act. The municipal bylaw aspects of The Heritage Resources Act indicate that much more can also be accomplished under and through The Planning Act. The Historic Resources Branch and its traditional role as a site-identification agency has been strengthened under the new act, and thus it is in a good position to contribute to general land-use systems planning exercises.

2.3 ENVIRONMENT CANADA, PARKS

2.3.1 PROGRAMS FOR CULTURAL RESOURCES

What follows are brief descriptions of Environment Canada's parks programs as they relate to the commemoration and protection of cultural resources with reference to the legislation bases and associated programs.

2.3.1.1 The National Parks Act, 1930

Section 10, Part II of the act specifies that the Governor-in-Council may set aside any land, "the title to which is vested in Her Majesty" as a National Historic Park to

i. commemorate a historic event of national importance, or

ii. preserve any historic landmark or any object of historic, prehistoric or scientific interest of national importance.

2.3.1.2 The Historic Sites and Monuments Act, 1953

According to the act the Minister may commemorate historic places, make agreements to commemorate historic places, establish museums and, with Treasury Board approval, acquire historic places and provide for the "administration, preservation and maintenance of any historic places acquired."

This act also formerly established the Historic Sites and Monuments Board whose key role is to recommend historic places for selection. A historic site is defined as "a site, or building or other place of national historic interest or significance, and includes buildings or structures that are of national interest."

2.3.1.3 National Historic Parks and Sites Systems Plan

National Historic Parks Systems Planning is the process which ensures the provision of required data and co-ordinates the review of that information by the Historic Sites and Monuments Board for the identification, selection and establishment of new national historic parks and sites.

2.3.1.4 National Historic Sites

Under The Historic Sites and Monuments Act, the Minister of the Environment may determine the selection of a historic place as a national historic sites.

It is important to note that National Historic Sites are not protected under the regulatory powers of The National Parks Act.

2.3.1.5 National Historic Parks

Three factors distinguish a national historic park:

i. national historic significance;

ii. protection and interpretation at the original place and in an authentic setting; and

iii. establishment, protection, interpretation and management by the federal government under the regulatory powers of The National Parks Act.

2.3.1.6 Canadian Heritage Rivers

Environment Canada, Parks, in conjunction with provincial and municipal governments, supports the development of a Canadian Heritage Rivers System.

2.3.1.7 Heritage Buildings

The federal government has a recognized policy on the heritage conservation of federal buildings.

2.3.1.8 Other Parks' Initiatives

2.3.1.8.1 Cost-Sharing Agreements

Parks may provide financial and technical assistance to municipal and provincial governments as well as private non-profit organizations to acquire and restore structures of national historic significance which deserve more than a commemorative plaque, but which do not warrant, acquisition for a national historic park.

2.3.1.9 Cultural Resources in National Parks - Recognition, Protection and Management

2.3.1.9.1 Legislation

The National Parks Act provides legal protection to all resources within the national parks, both natural resources and cultural resources. This protection is enforceable through the National Parks Regulations.

2.3.1.9.2 Policy

Policy clauses 3.2.12 and 3.2.13 and 3.2.14 provide for recognition and protection of cultural resources in national parks.

2.3.1.9.3 Management Planning

Statements of Parks' purposes and objectives which are prepared to a prescribed format, address cultural resources, their protection, management and interpretation. Head office approval is required for such statements.

The National Park Zoning System applies equally to natural and cultural resources and serves as one means to recognize and protect cultural resources. Significant cultural resources can receive a Zone I Special Preservation designation which limits access, can require off-site interpretation and provides a context for a variety of special management techniques, depending on the characteristics of the resource. Management plans typically address cultural resources in a manner similar to that used for natural resources, i.e., zoning, interpretation, administration, resources management, future research and planning, etc. Management plans submitted to head office for review/approval are scrutinized by functional review groups responsible for cultural resources.

The built heritage has recently become an important matter in national park planning. Federal Heritage Building Review Office guidelines are applied diligently, and Facility Appearance Guidelines for developed parks, e.g., Riding Mountain National Park, are designed to be complementary to heritage structures, use of native materials, etc.

2.3.1.9.4 Public Participation

Special interest cultural groups are consulted regularly as part of the public participation program to provide information, identify issues and provide comment and feedback.

2.3.1.10 Questions

i. What should the relationship/hierarchy be between local, provincial and federal governments with respect to cultural heritage resources/parks?

ii. How should resources be identified and priorized for inclusion in a cultural heritage parks system?

2.4 EXPERIENCE ACROSS CANADA: SELECTED PROVINCES

2.4.1 ALBERTA

Alberta has a dual system of parks administered by Alberta Recreation and Parks and by Alberta Culture. In 1980 Alberta Recreation and Parks issued a public summary systems plan entitled Welcome to Alberta's Provincial Parks. Four park classes were identified:

i. Preservation Parks

ii. Wildland Parks

iii Natural Environment Parks

iv. Recreation Parks and Areas.

Preservation parks are described in the document in the following way:

> These parks contain very special heritage resources--natural and cultural resources--which give us a greater appreciation of our provincial heritage. They are places to learn about the world around us, and explore the world of yesterday.

Alberta Culture is the government department which administers the 1973 Historical Resources Act and its later revisions. This act has been influential on the heritage legislation in other provinces such as Newfoundland (1985) and Manitoba (1986). Under the act, Alberta Culture has powers related to inventory, classification of sites, impact assessment, site development, and interpretation.

The Alberta legislation also established a heritage foundation, and in this it was following the example of Ontario which established a foundation as early as 1967. While Alberta Culture is not primarily a land management agency, it does have a number of historical parks under its direct administration, including the Ukrainian Heritage Park near Edmonton and the Head-Smashed-In prehistoric site. The former centralizes at one location a range of authentic buildings which have been threatened in their original setting, and restores and interprets them to the public. In this respect, the park has affinities with Ontario's Upper Canada Village near Morrisburg. Head-Smashed-In is now recognized as a World Heritage Site, as listed by UNESCO.

2.4.2. BRITISH COLUMBIA

Two acts play a major role in heritage resource conservation in British Columbia. The Parks Act (R.S.B.C. 1979.C.309), and The Heritage Conservation Act, (R.S.B.C. 1979.C.165). These two acts have a certain similarity in that both have the power to establish two levels of authority: the provincial and the regional. The British Columbia parks system is classified into parks of six types,[1] category (a) being for preservation. It is also stated that the Heritage Conservation Act applies in parks.[2]

A related act, The Park (Regional) Act (C.310) provides for the establishment of the regional parks system through the preliminary establishment for regional park boards, which may be set up either under this act or The Municipal Act. A park board, once established, will have control of a park district, and within that area the park board has the power to acquire, develop, operate and maintain regional parks. Another interesting provision allows for the establishment of regional trails.

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[1] Section 12(1).

[2] Section 13.

The Heritage Conservation Act deals with four main areas.

i. heritage matters of provincial scope and significance,

ii. provisions for the establishment of municipal heritage advisory councils and local bylaws for the protection of specified historic sites and objects,

iii. the terms of reference of the British Columbia Heritage Trust, and

iv. easements and covenants.

As with many provincial heritage acts passed in the last ten years, the stated purposes of the act tend towards a philosophy of general preservation throughout the province rather than being focused more exclusively on sites or resources of provincial significance.[1]

An interesting feature of the British Columbia park system is its promotion of a system of Provincial Marine Parks.[2] In 1978 there were at least 31 such parks. No particular general classification was considered appropriate for all of these, beyond their recognition as "Marine Parks" as the specific holdings of each were quite variable.

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[1] Section 2.

[2] British Columbia Provincial Marine Parks. B.C. Ministry of Lands, Parks and Housing, Parks Branch, 1978.

2.4.3 ONTARIO

As in Manitoba, the care and administration of human heritage resources is shared between Ontario Parks and Recreation and the Heritage Resources Branch of the Ministry of Citizenship and Culture. The former, as in Manitoba, is an agency with land management capability; and the latter, also as in Manitoba, is mainly advisory and program-oriented.

In 1981 the Park Planning Division completed a major draft systems plan. Of the six major classes of parks in Ontario, the following statement on historical parks is included:

> The historical park class is designed to protect significant landscape-related cultural resources. At this stage of inventory and analysis there is insufficient data to recommend a list or proposed candidates although Northwestern region has recommended some. Similar to the nature reserve park class, no specific targets have been assigned for historical parks because it is likely that most cultural resources protection will take place through other park classes. Only when no other class provides an effective protective mechanism, will a historical park be recommended.[1]

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[1] Report of the Task Force on Parks System Planning. 1981. Vol. 1 p. 52.

A short statement called Ontario Provincial Parks Policy was released to the public in 1978. The six classifications for parks in that statement included the following definition for historical parks.

> Historical Parks are areas selected to represent the distinctive historical resources of the Province in open space settings, and are protected for interpretive, educational and research purposes.

In addition to this class in the general parks system, Ontario maintains a number of special historic parks under the park commission style of management. These include Upper Canada Village, run by the St. Lawrence Parks Commission; the Niagara Parks run by the Niagara Parks Commission; Ste. Marie-among-the-Hurons, at Midland; and Old Fort William at Thunder Bay. The special park commissions and heritage parks such as Old Fort William are now administered by the Department of Tourism and Recreation.

Thus, in Ontario, at least four major agencies are identified with cultural resource management (in addition to museums): the Ministry of Natural Resources; the Department of Citizenship and Culture; the Department of Tourism and Recreation; and the Ontario Heritage Foundation, which is strongly related to the Department of Citizenship and Culture.

In Ontario the Ministry of Citizenship and Culture and the Ontario Heritage Foundation are authorized to implement heritage programs under The Ontario Heritage Act (S.O. 1974.C.122 and R.S.O.1981.C337). The act is in seven main parts. The role of the Ontario Heritage Foundation is set out in Part II of the act. The foundation is a powerful body which is not only concerned with the administration of funds held in trust for general heritage projects, but also plays a strong role in advising the Minister on such matters as archaeological licences[1] and on just about any heritage matter.[2] The act is a long one and has been promoted by the Ministry of Culture and Recreation (Citizenship and Culture) through specialized publications such as Archaeological Conservation in Ontario: A General Information Book for the Public (1979); Architectural Conservation and the Ontario Heritage Act (1980); and Heritage Conservation Easements (1981). As in a number of other provinces, including Manitoba, The Ontario Heritage Act stresses the local development of heritage councils and the development of heritage bylaws. The Conservation Review Board consisting of three persons appointed by the L.G. in Council, conducts hearings in areas of dispute concerning official designation or other problem areas.

2.4.4 SASKATCHEWAN

Between 1965 and 1980 Saskatchewan dealt with parks, protected areas and cultural resources, through its Provincial Parks, Protected Areas, Recreation Sites and Antiquities Act, (R.S.S.1965.C.54). The Minister was empowered to constitute "any area" within the province as a protected area. Under this system a number of historic parks were developed, such as Fort Pitt, Duck Lake and Saint Victor Petroglyphs. As of 1977 there were ten historic parks in Saskatchewan and 140 historic sites. Total acreage for these ten historic parks was about 230 acres while the average size of the landholding with each of the historic sites was 1/10 of an acre or less. "Protected Area" zoning was available for sensitive areas within parks, but "recreation" status might just as easily be the zoning designation given to a historic park, as at Cannington Manor, Touchwood Hills, and Wood Mountain. The criteria for zoning and management were very flexible and tailored to the requirements of the resource in hand rather than decreed through some formal type of park classification system.[1] In 1986 Saskatchewan passed a new Parks Act (R.S.S. 1986.P-1.1) in which "Historic Park" is retained.

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[1] Part VI.

[2] Part II, Sec. 9 and 10.

In 1980 Saskatchewan passed its Heritage Property Act. The intent of this act was to provide a much more comprehensive approach to cultural resources of all kinds such as could be found outside of the parks system and which might not qualify for formal historic site status. This act provides for both the protection and the orderly development of significant heritage resources throughout Saskatchewan. An important feature of the new act was its emphasis on enabling "different levels of government to take responsibility for heritage properties in their respective jurisdictions."[2]

In contrast with the 1965 legislation which stressed the setting aside and protection of provincially-significant resources, The Heritage Property Act added a second level of interest by also stressing "the preservation of representative heritage resources."[3] Several specific programs have been brought in as a consequence of the 1980 legislation, and these deal with

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[1] Saskatchewan Department of the Environment. Designated Land Areas in Saskatchewan. Policy Planning and Research Branch. January, 1976. pp. 37-61.

[2] Saskatchewan Culture and Youth. Conserving Heritage Resources. Heritage Conservation Information Series. January, 1981.

[3] Saskatchewan Culture and Youth. Criteria for the Designation of Heritage Properties. Heritage Conservation Information Series. April, 1981.

i. Municipal Heritage Property Designation,

ii. Archaeological Resources

iii. General Heritage Conservation Grants, including the erecting of local plaques, and the funding of research, and

iv. Heritage Property Grants.

2.5 SOME URBAN PARK DEVELOPMENTS IN CANADA

Urban parks in Canada have tended to reflect the relative youth of a nation experiencing growing pains. The priorities have been those concerned with setting aside open space and recreation facilities in rapidly expanding urban areas. These "pleasuring grounds" such as High Park in Toronto or Assiniboine Park in Winnipeg have taken on near sacred status.[1] In Europe, on the other hand, a great variety of open spaces in urban settings with different aspects can be noticed because of the gradual consolidation of old "commons" or the dedication of houses, estates and gardens previously in the royal or aristocratic domains. The notion of an urban heritage park surfaced in Europe in advance of North America owing to the sheer antiquity with which many Europeans are surrounded. Industrial archaeology and prehistoric archaeology have made major contributions to such ideas in England. (see Section 2.6) There is, nevertheless, a good deal of experimenting going on in Canada now. The conservation district concept was initiated in Quebec City; and the City of Winnipeg, by virtue of provisions in the 1970 City of Winnipeg Act, has been able to enact a bylaw controlling development in its old warehouse district (1978). In 1980, Meadowvale Village in Mississauga, became Ontario's first heritage conservation district.[2] All these experiments are somewhat "park-like" in that they attempt to establish an image and attitude to a locality without too severely curbing day-to-day use. In this respect they are much like the National Parks of England which are not premised on the same kind of exclusive land-use controls as is the case in North America. Colonial Williamsburg is, perhaps, the most famous example in North America of a conservation district with period interpretation added. The Williamsburg model has much in common with Parks Canada's efforts in Dawson City, Yukon Territory.

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[1] L. Martin and K. Segrave, City Parks of Canada (Oakville: Mosaic, 1983).

[2] Bill Thompson, "Meadowvale Village," Plan Canada 21(1)(1985), 10-20.

There are other interesting efforts on a smaller scale across Canada. Near Edmonton the Strathcona Science Park has been developed with its emphasis on archaeology and resource developments characteristic of Alberta. In Winnipeg the Joe Zuken Heritage Park in historic Point Douglas attempts, within a few acres, to impart awareness of a number of different themes over time, relevant to Winnipeg's fur-trade, and postal and industrial history. At Stonewall, Manitoba, a major quarry associated with the limestone industry has been turned into a multiple-use recreation park stressing industrial history and recreation. Similarly, in south Winnipeg the Fort Whyte Centre for Environmental Education has developed around abandoned quarries with the view to providing much-needed urban habitat for waterfowl, and on-site interpretation and education for school groups and the general public. The Heritage Park in southwest Calgary centralizes artifacts and buildings representing the early settlement of the West, and provides many activities in association with these. This is the joint enterprise of the Heritage Park Society and the City of Calgary. Regina's well-regarded Wascana Park combines opportunities for museology, tours of the Provincial Legislature and passive outdoor recreation focused on Wascana Lake. Another model involves intergovernmental initiatives associated with river corridors and associated heritage resources. Developments of this kind have taken place in Saskatoon, Winnipeg and Ottawa.

2.6 NON-CANADIAN APPROACHES TO HERITAGE PARK DEVELOPMENT

According to Stephen W. Jacobs "Most European countries followed the lead of France in regarding preservable objects as part of a national heritage to be inventoried, managed, restored, and protected by the national government."[1] In the United States, on the other hand, the "federal and other governments have played an important but relatively modest role."[2] This can undoubtedly be partially explained by the very different philosophy of private land ownership which developed in North American as a by-product of its early settlement history. In Britain and France great attention has been given to conservation of the architectural heritage and to the control of urban sprawl. Town and country have been maintained as much as possible as distinct identities. Strong planning legislation dealing with urban design has been mixed with a long tradition of private action through associations. The National Trust of England has been in place for 92 years and has had its own act since 1907 defining the Trust's mandate in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. There is a separate National Trust for Scotland.[3] Some of the representative achievements of the National Trust would include

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[1] Stephen W. Jacobs, "Government Experience in the United States" in Heritage Preservation Today. (Charlottesville: U. of Virginia, 1963) p. 100.

[2] Idem.

[3] The National Trust Handbook. (London: The National Trust, 1987). p. 5.

i. 460 miles of unspoiled coastline,

ii. 140,000 acres of fell, dale, lake and forest in the Lake District,

iii. prehistoric and Roman antiquities,

iv. nature reserves,

v. all or portions of 44 villages, and

vi. specific buildings and sites of general heritage significance.[1]

Another approach, well developed in France and Denmark, is that of the outdoor museum or "Eco-Musee." An outstanding example is Hjerl Hede in Jutland, Denmark. The emphasis is on the reconstruction of the mediaeval landscape and representative components within it, through museological approaches. There is no particular restriction on the timeliness commemorated, but strict research and conceptual planning guides all development as in any museum of standing. At Hjerl Hede, the land base selected is in its own right a legitimate resource, being the setting of a farm dating from about 1530.[2]

This model certainly has its parallels, by degree, in certain experiments in Canada. Old Fort William is a reconstruction rather than a restoration, and it embodies many hands-on demonstrations such as canoe- and boat-building, farming techniques, and period food preparation. At the other end of the spectrum are the so-called "theme parks" of which Disneyland is the most famous. These kinds of parks make no pretense at dealing with an authentic past, but measure their success only on the "fun-o-meter" and at the box-office.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Robert A. Newcomb, Planning the Past. (Folkstone, Kent: Dawson, 1979). pp. 41-44.

Another important approach, strongly developed in Europe, is that of the restored landscape. This is done with major involvement of archaeologists, geographers and landscape architects. The central notion is that the conservation and interpretation of the physical artifacts is only a partial treatment. It is also important to try to reconstruct an image of the surroundings in which the phenomena were located and attempt to establish the functional relationships. This is certainly advantageous when one is attempting to deal with certain engineering sites where there is an intimate connection between the technology and the land. A water-powered saw-mill made operational, is much more convincing if the head-pond can be restored and maintained in order to run the saws, rather than by some other artificial means such as electricity. From this point of view, in North America there has probably been more attention given to living farms than to any other form. Such a theme is well suited to many provincial park systems and examples that can be cited are Murphy's Point in Ontario and Beaudry Provincial Heritage Park in Manitoba.[1]

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[1] Cf. Darwin P. Kelsey, "Outdoor Museums and Historical Agriculture," Agricultural History 46(1), 105-28; and Sam Rosenberg, ed. Travel Historic Rural America--A Guide to Agricultural Museums and Events in the U.S. and Canada. (St. Joseph: American Society of Agricultural Engineers, 1982).

2.7 MARKETING HISTORIC RESOURCES IN MANITOBA

To some it may appear to be a sacrilege or an oddity to think of marketing historic resources. Graveyards, old houses, museums and abandoned farmyards do not appear to be in the same league as Coke, GM and Chanel No. 5. We have come to associate marketing with hype and glitz and neon lights. Hardly the kind of thing that can be done with an abandoned mill or old school. And yet, marketing in its true form, may be the salvation of many of our historic resources in Manitoba.

Marketing, in its simplest form, is the art and science of defining a consumer's real or potential wants and needs and then carefully presenting your product to fit those consumer demands at the "right" price. In this view of marketing there is nothing that says you must build a sky tram to the Golden Boy or put flashing lights on Louis Riel's grave. Quite to the contrary, marketing of historic resources must be done in a sensitive, tasteful manner.

The marketing process begins by asking if there is a demand for historic resources and, if there is a demand, does Manitoba have something (heaven forbid) to sell. The answers to those two questions is "yes!" In 1986, 32% of 4,800 respondents to a Provincial Park survey indicated they wanted more historical information available in parks. The early 1980's saw an explosion of local history books being published as small towns across Manitoba celebrated their 100th birthdays. These books sold quickly and at the same time rekindled an interest in the past.

The demand for historic places, facts and stories about Manitoba is not limited just to Manitobans. We must remember that for those visiting the province "our" history is a "new" story or past that they likely have never heard of before and, as such, very marketable. If we can say there is a demand for Manitoba's past, then what might the product be? If we limit our thinking about the product to "old things" we are missing a large part of the market potential of our historic resources.

The product is, in part, museums, old houses and abandoned townsites, but it is also "imagining what it was like," recalling a memory of someone or some place, understanding change and progress, and dreaming of the future.

In short, historic resources are partly "steak" (the site) but more importantly there is the "sizzle" or the experience. The sizzle does not need to be extravagant, costly restorations (although in places they are necessary), nor should there be a concentration on the grand, glorious and famous. The ordinary homes, plain riverboats and rank-and-file Manitobans of the past can provide an interesting, marketable commodity. Our history need not be limited to museums either. Bed-and-breakfast establishments in old homes, car caravans and picnics with local historical societies, and commercial fishing demonstrations at an old Icelandic village can be as appealing as the lobster feasts of Prince Edward Island.

To begin marketing historic resources we must define

i. who the visitor is,

ii. the visitors' wants and needs, (actual or potential),

iii. the historic resources available,

iv. how existing resources can be modified to meet visitors' needs,

v. an appropriate, sensitive promotion campaign, and

vi. the "right" price for the historic resource or experience.

By defining these six points the essence of a marketing plan for historic resources has been developed. But, first, Manitobans must believe that their historic people, places and possessions are appealing and, yes, even exciting, to others. Once we have developed that "spark" and attitude the rest, as they say in business, will be history!

2.7.1 TRAVEL TRENDS AND MANITOBA'S HISTORICAL RESOURCES

Forecasting travel trends is somewhat akin to weather forecasting because of the many variables which, if not considered, could result in inaccurate predictions. However, careful analyses can disclose distinct trends.

If our historic resources are properly marketed on the basis of these trends, the many benefits could include increased attendance, economic spin-offs to surrounding communities, increased awareness of our culturally diverse past, and increased support for the presentation of historic resources.

The wealth of information from federal and provincial agencies' ongoing analyses of trends is available for the asking. Therefore, information gathering need not be an expensive or time-consuming task.

2.7.1.1 Overview of Major Travel Trends

Manitoba's most promising travel segment for the future will continue to be residents of Manitoba. Combined with the deterrence of the U.S./Canadian Exchange Rates, close proximity of quality destinations in Manitoba tend to keep Manitobans from travelling too far from home. Most specifically related to historic resources, travel trends indicate that Manitobans with cultural ties to a site or facility will continue to be a major market. This is evident at such sites as the very successful Steinbach Mennonite Museum which attracts the Province's large Mennonite population. Similarly, if marketed properly, Hecla Village and St. Norbert developments could successfully draw upon their respective associated ethnic populations.

Other Canadian provinces (primarily Ontario and Saskatchewan) will continue to be significant market segment in the future for the same reasons mentioned in the Manitoba segment. Also, "V.F.R." travel (Visiting Friends and Relatives) into the Province will continue to be extremely important. In fact, Travel Manitoba is considering a future promotional campaign that would encourage former residents to return to Manitoba for a visit and/or a Manitoba reunion.

The U.S. forecast provides a mixed outlook regarding travel and possible visits to Manitoba's historic resources. Canada's major U.S. travel segment is referred to as the "Touring Type." It is individuals from this segment that are most likely to be visiting historic facilities/sites. However, Manitoba rates very low as a possible destination for this travel segment, for it appears that the attractions sought are major landmarks and nationally significant sites. On the other hand, the favourable rate of exchange and the American tourists' perception of Canada as a safe destination are positive factors. It has been shown that the U.S. travel market has become more interested in the cultural diversity of Canada. Because of these factors the U.S. market (primarily Minnesota and South Dakota) will continue to be important to Manitoba.

This brief overview of major travel trends forecasted for Manitoba and Canada is only a portion of what must be considered. There are still many questions we must ask ourselves when developing a long-term strategy for historic resources . . .

Some questions to ponder:

i. What is the effect of the aging populations in the U.S. and Canada?

ii. What are the needs of a well-educated visitor?

iii. What makes a successful major attraction? What does the visitor want/need?

iv. Are Manitoba's historical resources significant enough to attract the U.S. market, i.e. the Touring Type?

vi. Are we taking advantage of the growing Manitoba travel segment, e.g. the more mobile school and senior groups?

References: Manitoba Marketing Plan '87. Business Development and Tourism.

U.S. Pleasure Travel Market. Tourism Canada, 1985.

Mennonite Village Museum, Master Plan--Lord Cultural Resources Planning and Management Inc., 1956.

2.8 CO-OPERATING ASSOCIATIONS

"Marketing" has definitely been the favourite word around park systems since the mid 1970's. As a descriptor of desirable ends in public policy it can appeal to the private sector's imagination as well as to public administrators whose budgets are under assault. The initial impulse behind the rise of this word to prominence was a feeling (rather than a sober reflection) that parks had to be better "sold" and "packaged" for public consumption. The reality in the 1970's, however, was that parks had never been more popular, and only the sudden crisis over oil prices finally put a slight dint in visitation.

The major area where "marketing" techniques are still needed is in the area of sales items, publications, and cost-recovery of revenues for purposes of heritage promotion. The co-operating association movement has been correctly viewed as the key to this issue, but progress has been uneven, both at the federal and provincial levels. The main message of Theodore Mosquin's excellent research on co-operating associations executed for Parks Canada in the late 1970's seems to have been missed: that for geographic and demographic reasons Canada is, in fact, not the United States. A faith in grassroots action, no matter how appealing politically, is not likely to be able to do the job alone, Central, and preferably regional, sources of seed-funding are likely to be needed in order to assist local efforts at co-operating association establishment.[1] With or without flourishing co-operating associations in place, it has long been apparent that parks are excellent vehicles for promoting income redistribution in rural areas and, it may be recalled, that these were the major rationales for Fortress Louisburg and the Dawson City Project.[1] The need for some centralized source of funds was not lost on certain non-government organizations. The main success story of "marketing" heritage in Canada in recent years would have to be the main street program of Heritage Canada.[2] As an early statement on the market to be tapped, George Galt's 1976 article (see Section 3) was an excellent propaganda effort.

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[1] Theodor Mosquin, The Idea of Co-operating Associations for Canada's National Heritage Areas. (Ottawa: Parks Canada. 1978).

Another organization which has made valiant efforts to stimulate interest in selling the park, and heritage generally, is Interpretation Canada.[3] This organization survives mainly on guts, since its membership tends to be drawn from the seasonally-employed. Its national workshops, journal, and continued existence is something of a phenomenon. The lack of agency "profile" given to the field of interpretation is a major difficulty, since this term (or "Presentation" as the Europeans prefer) is actually the best symbol of the entire mandate of many public heritage agencies.[4]

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[1] Evaluation of the Impact on the Canadian Economy of Spending Attributable to National Heritage Locations Administered by Parks Canada. Vol. 1 (Ottawa: Environment Canada, Parks Canada. Socio-Economic Research Division April, 1983).

[2] D. Holdsworth, ed. Reviving Main Street. Heritage Canada Foundation. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1985).

[3] Interpretation Canada. Central Region. Marketing for Heritage Organizations: Professional Development Seminar Proceedings. (Winnipeg: Manitoba Museum of Man and Nature, 1985).

[4] In addressing the national workshop of Interpretation Canada at Naramata B.C. in 1978, David Suzuki stated: "I didn't know you guys even existed."

The long-standing success of co-operating association outlets in the United States can be attributed to several factors: a large population base; the relative proximity of urban centres to major park landscapes; a large source of private wealth seeking charitable ends; an ambitious sales-oriented national ethic; and a disposition to keep government activity limited. Some of these factors may be noted in Canada as well, but there are serious limitations on how far the volunteer can be stretched, particularly in rural areas where most of our major park landscapes are located. It may be that municipally-funded heritage parks currently have the best prospects owing to their ability to muster local support and retain generated revenues in a straightforward manner. The Park Commission model employed in Ontario (Fort William; Upper Canada Village, etc.) has something of this capacity in that a considerable amount of their revenues are retained from co-operating associations, but there are still large annual appropriations from the Ontario Government. A review of the experience in British Columbia with its Park (Regional) Act might be appropriate from the point of view of revenue retention. (See Section 2.4.2.)

Another trend which cannot be ignored from the standpoint of marketing a parks and recreation "market-share" is that initiated by theme park developers. These trends and their implications for the promoters of legitimate heritage, have been interestingly discussed by the director of the new National Museum of Civilization, George F. MacDonald. (See Bibliography).

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4.0 Readings

Historical Geography and the Concept of the Authentic Past as a Regional Resource

Wolfgang Pieguth

Recently a suggestion has been made to regard "the authentic past" as a regional recreational resource (E. G. Pleva, personal communication). The regional past is a resource since it attracts the interest of both local inhabitants and visitors. Thus not only natural but also cultural resources -- particularly those of an historic nature -- should be considered as contributing to the character of a visitor industry.

It has become increasingly evident that the demand for outdoor recreation is generated not merely by a person's desire for a change of place. The desire for a change in time is also important. There is a particular fascination for the past. The continued interest displayed by a large number of Canadians in the reconstruction near Midland, Ontario, of Ste Marie-Among-the-Hurons, in Old Fort Henry at Kingston, Ontario, and in Upper Canada Village at Morrisburg, Ontario, may be considered as evidence. In addition surveys by the Canadian Travel Bureau reveal that American tourists are interested enough in Canadian historic sites to rate a visit to them second in their choice of activities during visits to Canada. At Ste Marie, a sampling of visitor origins in 1964 indicated that approximately 10 per cent of the visitors came from the United States.

Such curiosity has often been construed by North American pragmatists as a fanciful, Romantic whim, a fleeting fashion, or an unworthy escape from reality. In consequence, money spent on preservation and reconstruction has been considered wasted. In fact, this so-called Romantic attitude has existed, in varying degrees, at all times, for man seems prone to look into the past to satisfy his curiosity about his origins and past development, and thus to gain some understanding as a guide to the future. With increasing leisure, men have time to indulge their natural inquisitiveness; it cannot be denied that historical curiosity is a wholesome human desire and should be encouraged. At the economic level, money spent for such purposes is thus better spent than on many desires created and fostered solely by advertising.

The interest in historic resources in Canada is recent indeed, J. D. Herbert, Chief of the Canadian Historic Sites Division explained:

Ontario Geographer, 1 (1967), 55-59

> Up until the end of World War II, the biggest and best Canadian ethnographic collections were in Britain, the U.S.A. and Scandinavia; only Quebec had a genuine tradition in literature; . . . less than 25 important monographs in Canadian history had been produced by Canadians; and from coast to coast apart from the responsibility the Government of Canada (inherited from itself) for the care of obsolete military establishments, there was scarcely a dozen historical houses in the perpetual care of anyone. What was most appalling few people seemed genuinely concerned. (Herbert, 1962, p.1.)

This situation has dramatically changed. Increasingly since the war Canadians have entered into a search for self-identification and, travelling through the country, they have been encouraged to look at features of the cultural landscape that offer them satisfying visual assurance of their identity. The experience of World War II as well as apparent post-war strains on national unity within Canada may have helped to raise questions of national and cultural origin and destination. Was it, perhaps, the increasing economic involvement of the United States with Canada that initiated this change? Is it a defense mechanism against the impact of the American television culture? Did the numbers of postwar New Canadians, in their necessary search for new values, intensify the quest for national identity? Did the increased urbanism and population mobility and the attendant estrangement from family and homestead stimulate this search for roots?

Modern technology has increased the rate of change and diffusion of cultural elements and seems likely to reduce spatial differences by standardizing some aspects of the environment. Jean Gottmann has characterized the suburbs as "depersonalized locales" and suggested that these trends "indicate a probable generalization of uniformity " (Gottman, 1957, p.24). In the face of this tendency toward uniformity, government expenditure for reconstruction of relics of the past are not questioned seriously any longer. People evidently regard them as recreational resources.

Yet in this age of mass-participation mere preservation might result in a series of isolated "dead" monuments, unrelated to each other as well as to all visitors except the initiate. Responsible interpretation is therefore an inescapable element in the presentation of the authentic past. From a historical point of view, for example, the juxtaposition in the landscape of works from several periods of human occupance communicates a concrete impression that we are living in a changing world. Interpretation moreover, interrelates these periods and indicates that cultural change is a process as old as humanity and that it involves every person today.

Preservation and interpretation of historical-cultural resources enters the planning process, for priorities have to be established. Some sites or areas of only local or regional historical importance may yet be crucial to the accurate interpretation of development in that locality or region. Others have provincial, national, and even continental significance. Such rankings need to be considered in the allocation of funds and in planning.

Interpretation of historical sites must be authentic, but a word of caution, on the concept of "authenticity" is necessary. Every civilization and nation tends to produce a rationale of over-simplified and, therefore, unifying beliefs or assumptions. While the preservation and reconstruction of actual historical sites may serve to counter the human tendency to build myths, the selection and interpretation of such works is necessarily influenced by the current system of values. A critical approach to the interpretation rather than tacit consent to such basic views should be a prerequisite; scientific team research seems to offer, therefore, the best safeguards. Authenticity is also imperilled if only the positive, pleasant aspects of the past are included in a system of historical sites for preservation. Development of historic resources should also exclude transplantations of sites such as occurred in the construction of Greenfield Village, Detroit; divorced from their original settings historical sites may lose much of their meaning. Wherever such spatio-temporal links are broken, a historical "zoo", a Disneyland, results.

The analysis of a recreation landscape falls into a dichotomy of cultural and natural factors. The distinction, however, is made solely to facilitate analysis of the resource base. A geographical approach to such research seems to be particularly appropriate, for unlike history and the earth sciences geography considers time and earth space in conjunction. Moreover, the analysis of the cultural aspects of the recreational resource base appears to be served best by the regional approach. This is true not only for administrative but also for aesthetic reasons. The outdoor recreation experience consists according to Clawson of five aspects: anticipation, travel to, on site, travel back, and recollection. "The greatest opportunity for improvement of the outdoor recreation experience lies in the two travel phases . . .

But we have never been much concerned with what the traveller saw or what he thought about what he saw" (Clawson, 1963, p.40-43). The enjoyment of leisure travel increases in areas where landscape is more differentiated regionally and locally. Where the character of the landscape changes frequently or abruptly for the traveller, the differences in regional personality become sharpened and, in recollection, are focussed in the form of regional environmental images, Lynch has stressed the social importance of the environmental image for life in the city:

> The environmental image can serve as a general frame of reference within which the individual can act, or to which he can attach his knowledge. In this way, it is like a body of belief, or a set of social customs: it is an organizer of facts and possibilities ... The named environment, familiar to all, furnishes material for common memories and symbols which bind a group together and allow them to communicate with one another. The landscape serves as a vast mnemonic system for the retention of group history and ideals (Lynch, 19 1960, p.126).

On the broader scale of recreational travel, of national identity, and of continental outlook the pattern of regional images seems to be a significant part of our "equipment for living" (Lynch, 1960, p.124).

What approach to the evaluation of the historical-cultural resources of an area should then be used within this context of regionalized recreation space? In conjunction with other specialized research the study of sequent occupance appears to be of particular value. The development of the cultural landscape comes about both through gradual evolution and sudden change during occupation by cultural groups who use and organize the land and its resources in different ways (Philbrick, 1963, p.1). The sequent occupance of the area should therefore not be treated in the sense of Whittlesey who advised that "it must not be concerned with processes of development" (Whittlesey, 1929). Rather, it is the very changes in man's spatial conception of the geographical situation of the area, and "his attitudes toward his physical-biotic environment" (National Academy of Sciences, 1965, p.28), which illuminate the changing personality of a region. The resulting stages may then be used as a framework for the classification, evaluation, and development of the historic resources.

Today new socio-political ideas and innovations have brought planners to a threshold. It is now possible to initiate a democratic planning process that would permit the continued evolution of a "civilized landscape" (F. G. Pleva, personal communication). This does not mean merely the development of a plan to prettify the land. Rather, it involves an environmental design that would "remind us of ... an order that includes both the work of nature and the works of man" (Lyndon, et al, 1962, p.35). It means the synthesis of the aesthetic elements of a region to project a comprehensive, clear and meaningful image of its past and present characteristics. This planning design should incorporate the methods of regional development to insure that the landscape would be livable and viable and, therefore, in a true sense beautiful.

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CHAPTER 8

The Future of the Urban Past

Martin Biddle

The art of living in cities, which is one way of defining civilization, has always produced the largest and most complex of human settlements. Frequently these are also the places which have been longest occupied, although not always as urban centres, for in the course of a history that can exceed two thousand years cities and towns may more than once have declined to villages or less before returning again to urban life. Yet every period leaves traces of its own activity in the urban soil, and contributes by its disturbance of the ground to the destruction of the remains of its predecessors; so it is that towns are also the largest and most complex of archaeological sites.

It is perhaps worth emphasizing how unusual towns are in the continuity of occupation they sometimes display. Such continuity, if not unknown, is at least rarely seen in rural settlements, whether single farms, hamlets, or villages. It is a factor which adds immeasurably both to the difficulty and to the rewards of archaeology in towns.

Urban archaeology, a new development in archaeological studies, is a product of the sixties. Excavations had of course been undertaken in towns before 1960, notably in Roman towns that had been to a great extent deserted in subsequent centuries, such as Caerwent, Silchester, or St Albans, or by contrast in towns that had not been deserted, but had as a result suffered severe damage from bombing in the Second World War, such as Canterbury or London. Although the basic impulse behind this work was a wish to learn about the Roman phase in the towns concerned, it was nevertheless excavation in bomb-damaged cities, where the remains of periods later than Roman were very much in evidence and simply could not be ignored, that led to the current concept of urban archaeology. This sees the town itself, the urban phenomenon, as the centre of interest, rather than any one period of the town's history or any single aspect of its activity. Urban archaeology studies the evolution and changing character of urban communities from their earliest origins, through subsequent vicissitudes, down to the emergence of the existing community and its characteristic urban pattern in the central decades of Victoria's reign.

This broad approach to the study of urban society from the standpoint of archaeology touches upon and merges with the work of other disciplines at many points and in many ways. The interests of the urban archaeologist are often indistinguishable from those of the historian or geographer, even the social scientist. The distinction between urban archaeology on the one hand and urban history or urban geography on the other is a difference only of approach. The urban archaeologist looks at urban society from the point of view of the historian of material culture. His principal sources are the physical remains of the past, whether these are buried or still standing, whether they are individual structures or form the pattern of whole settlements, whether they are objects preserved in museums or comprise the total known surviving product of a community's activity. But the urban archaeologist will also make constant use, for the periods for which they are available, of the documents, maps, and plans which are the principal sources of the urban historian and the urban geographer, and of the very wide range of natural sciences which are essential to an understanding of the technology, the human and animal resources, the vegetational environment, even the absolute chronology, of past urban communities.

What distinguishes urban archaeology from other disciplines interested in the history of towns is, however, not only the range and character of the evidence it offers, but also the fact that this evidence is being destroyed unrecorded on a scale and at a pace which might seem unbelievable were it not so fully documented. This is the more serious because archaeological evidence is often the only source of information we have about a town's origins and early history. Written sources relating to towns are rare before the thirteenth century, and do not become detailed until the fifteenth or even sixteenth century. A town may have been in existence for a thousand years before there is written record of much more than its name. Nevertheless archaeology can trace

the development of the town through these unwritten centuries, and can place its history on a much wider basis than would be possible using documents alone. For even when documents are available it is a truism that they provide information about matters on which archaeology is silent, while archaeological evidence relates to fields not covered by the documents. Archaeological evidence and documentary evidence are complementary to a remarkable degree, although there may be considerable difficulties of correlation arising from just this tendency to provide information about mutually exclusive fields.

The destruction of archaeological evidence, in towns as elsewhere, has three immediate results. It removes for ever the opportunity to learn anything about those periods in a town's history for which there is no written evidence. For the periods for which documents exist, it reduces the value of these written sources, excluding for all time the possibility of extending our comprehension and evaluation of the information they contain by correlation with archaeological evidence. The destruction of archaeological evidence means also that, even during periods of recorded history, it will always be impossible to understand those aspects of a town's life which are not themselves covered by the documents.

There are wider considerations. Towns are very different one from another, in their historical development as in their external characteristics. These differences frequently reflect the varying opportunities offered and the varying problems posed by the regions in which the towns are situated, as well as the relationships between individual urban settlements in a hierarchical pattern. A town, in other words, does not live of its own. It has a complex series of relationships with the lesser settlements of its immediate area, to which its urban character is in part a direct response. It forms part also of a wider network of urban communities, within which it has its own part to play, and by which it is partly conditioned. It unfortunately follows that failure to understand the historical development of an urban community has direct repercussions on our knowledge of the systems of which it is a part. If the archaeological evidence for such a community is destroyed unrecorded, the historical evolution of a whole region may never be entirely comprehended, while the part played by the town in relation to other urban communities will also be obscured. The destruction of a lesser settlement may only result in a tactical defeat; a major loss of knowledge concerning an urban settlement can only upset the whole strategy of historical inquiry over a considerable area of time and space.

Before going on to consider the present rate of destruction and the nature, actual and desirable, of the archaeological response to the situation, it may be useful to say something about the definition of a town. This is an area on which discussion can rapidly reach philosophical levels, but for archaeology an essentially practical definition is required, a definition which seeks to establish the concept of a town in terms of a varying combination of factors, not one of which would on its own constitute urban character. These factors may include the presence of defences, a planned street-system, a market, a mint, house-plots and house-types of urban form, a complex religious organization, a judicial centre, a relatively dense population, a diversified economic base, a degree of social class differentiation, an independent legal existence, and a function as a central place in relation both to its own region and to a more extended urban network. This last criterion is almost certainly indispensable. Not all towns will possess more than a few of these characteristics, however, but on a purely pragmatic level the possession of three, or perhaps even two, will in most cases give some claim to consideration as an urban place. It is obvious that the larger places, such as Gloucester or Canterbury, will include most of these factors, but it is interesting to note that their composition may change drastically with time, and will occasionally provide indications that a given place has lost or is losing its urban character.

Of what then does the archaeological evidence for a town's history consist? It comprises all the physical remains of man's past activity on the town's site, from the moment of its first occupation, probably as a non-urban settlement, through all the phases of its existence down to the present day. A good deal of this will be buried or below-ground evidence, if only because many towns are so ancient that few if any standing buildings will have survived intact from their earlier phases. And this below-ground evidence will include the foundations and lower parts of buildings of stone and timber, the layers of soil resulting from

their construction, occupation, and disuse, the remains of defences and streets, of water-courses, drains, and of pits for the disposal of rubbish, for industrial purposes, and even for storage. By cutting down into lower levels each period has contributed to the destruction of earlier evidence, and because towns have always by definition been places of intensive settlement, and because this occupation has been long continued, the archaeological evidence in towns is nearly always of quite exceptional complexity. The deposits of soil that have resulted from previous occupation are deep, they are extensively complicated by the insertion of later features into earlier levels, and they cover a very large area. No other kind of site presents quite this degree of difficulty, which is yet further compounded by the presence of a modern community usually occupying an area far greater than the ancient nucleus.

But archaeological evidence is not only to be found below the ground. The pattern which is formed today on the ground by the town as a whole, and by its separate components, whether streets, or public buildings, or private properties, is the cumulative result of many thousands of individual decisions. The effects of some of these decisions have endured for a very long time. The Roman walls and gates of London, Winchester, or Lincoln are still a major factor in the plans of those cities today; the street plans of Oxford, Chichester, or Colchester were laid out a thousand years ago; individual properties in Shrewsbury, York, or Exeter, or a hundred other towns, have remained in some cases virtually unchanged in their boundaries since at least the thirteenth century. These patterns are magnificently recorded on a long series of plans from the seventeenth century onwards and especially in the Ordnance Survey plans at scales of 1:1056, 1:528, or 1:500, prepared in the middle and latter part of the nineteenth century; but the proper interpretation of these plans, as of urban topography itself, requires far more than a study of two-dimensional representations. Urban pattern is three-dimensional; it consists as much of buildings standing on plots, as of plots themselves. The study of archaeology-on-the-ground means going out and looking at townscape; photographing it, drawing it, and describing it, with problems of historical development in mind, and questions formulated for answer, revision, and reanswer, while the three-dimensional pattern is still there to be studied. For the scale of modern development is for the first time cutting across and entirely obliterating patterns which have taken centuries to emerge. As below the ground, so too on the ground the archaeology of urban communities is fast passing beyond our reach.

There is also an archaeology above the ground. In many cases it is the standing buildings from the past – churches, castles, defences, houses – which have already attracted the attention of specialists and the interested public. And yet nearly always these buildings have been studied in isolation, as if they stood in the open country rather than in the town. As components of the urban scene from various periods in the past they need to be studied in and as part of their context. This is a field in which there are many new discoveries to be made. The rate of discovery suggests that there may be thousands of medieval timber-framed and even some stone houses still quite unrecognized behind post-medieval and modern facades in our ancient town centres. These buildings are also being destroyed to make way for new developments and, since they are frequently unrecognized until the moment of demolition, it is usually too late to obtain any adequate record, let alone secure a reprieve, however desirable on public grounds that might in retrospect appear to have been. Lucky indeed is the archaeologist who can find standing buildings still intact when usually he has to make do with the evidence provided by their foundations in the ground. There is no divide between above and below ground; archaeology is an analytical study of the material remains of the past, however they may be preserved, whether buried, or forming patterns of settlement on the ground, or standing several storeys high. The urban archaeologist may be confronted with all three situations, for in the congested heart of an old town structures can be quite as easily buried above ground, behind centuries of additions and alterations, as they can be hidden below the surface. Add to this, to the need to be both digging archaeologist and architectural historian, the range of periods over which a town site may have been occupied and the diversity of human activities that may have taken place there, many of which will have left their own distinctive and perhaps highly complex remains, and it can be seen that the challenges facing the urban archaeologist arise almost as much from the nature of his chosen field of study as from the rate at which his basic evidence is being destroyed.

The extent and pace of this destruction has recently been surveyed by the Council for British Archaeology in *The Erosion of History: Archaeology and Planning in Towns*. Based on questionnaires circulated to planning officers in England, Wales, and Scotland, and on wide inquiries among local societies and individual archaeologists, this report sets out the extent to which the archaeology of the historic towns of the three countries has already been affected or will be affected in the future by development schemes, and also the scale and nature of the efforts being made to record the architecture and archaeology of these towns before destruction. The resulting picture is grim:

1. Of the 906 historic towns in England, Wales, and Scotland for which information could be obtained, there are 834 which can still be investigated. Over half of these (583) are threatened by some sort of development. Of these, 159 'will be lost to archaeology in twenty years if not before *including the most important towns of all historical periods*' (our italics).
2. Of these 583 threatened towns, only 3.6 per cent (21 towns) are being adequately studied from an archaeological point of view, and only 1.8 per cent (11 towns) enjoy an adequate standard of architectural recording.
3. Taking England alone, of the 702 historic towns examined in *The Erosion of History*, nearly 20 per cent (127 towns) 'are so seriously threatened that 20 years hence little of their archaeology will remain'. More than 33 per cent (265 towns) are less seriously threatened by development. In 177 of these towns (71 per cent) no archaeological or architectural work is being undertaken; in only one of these towns are there adequate arrangements for archaeology. Of the historic English County Borough towns half have already been archaeologically destroyed; of the remaining 29, 24 are seriously threatened, and 5 less severely. Of the 55 towns in this category, only 10 are being adequately investigated archaeologically.
4. Of the 61 Roman towns, 25 are not threatened, 2 are mostly destroyed already, 20 are severely, and 14 less severely threatened. In 34 of the

36 threatened towns some archaeological work is in progress, but in only 10 is it on an adequate scale.

5. Of the 107 Saxon towns considered in the report, 23 are not threatened, 2 are destroyed already, 38 are severely, and 44 less severely threatened. In 59 of the 84 threatened towns there is some archaeological work in progress, but in only 10 is it on an adequate scale.

The Erosion of History not only clarifies the size and character of the problem, it gives a clear idea of the time-scale within which national solutions have to be found, and arrangements made in individual towns to record the archaeological and architectural evidence for their history before it is destroyed. Nothing brings out the accelerating pace of the threat more clearly than the figures for planning consents granted by the City of London Corporation over the last few years in relation to an administrative district that is essentially the same as the ancient walled city and its immediate suburbs: 16 in 1970, 29 in 1971, and 34 applications made or approved in the first nine months of 1972.

The nature of the disturbance or destruction of archaeological levels in the course of modern development varies from project to project. Bulk excavation for basements, for the levelling of new structures into a hillside, or for the construction of road cuttings, removes archaeological levels in their entirety. The deepest archaeological deposits in any English town are probably to be found in London, where they can reach a depth of over 25 feet; a more usual depth might be up to 12 feet. Modern basements frequently exceed this, sometimes greatly, and on such sites no archaeological evidence will survive. Perhaps as frequent, however, in view of the high cost of basement construction, is the use of piled foundations. In these cases total destruction of archaeological deposits is directly proportional to the number of piles driven into a given area. It is thus sometimes assumed that the archaeology of such sites may not be seriously damaged. This is a claim that needs to be rigorously examined and each case decided individually. What is often forgotten is the extent to which at least the upper 3 feet of a site will be disturbed by service trenches and linear excavations for pile caps and foundation beams. It must regrettably be concluded that most sites on which buildings are to be constructed on piled foundations will be seriously damaged from an archaeological point of view.

The only development sites on which ancient deposits are likely to remain undisturbed or relatively so are those which are to be sealed, perhaps by surfacing as in a yard or car park, or where a new building is to be built on a rafted foundation. It is most unwise, however, to extend this view to an assumption that archaeological deposits below new roads or pavements will survive intact, with only the loss of the uppermost levels by the formation of foundations. The insertion of services, inevitably concentrated along street and pavement lines, in fact ensures the rapid destruction of archaeological evidence in a remarkably thorough way, at least down to the level of the deeper sewers at up to 8 feet below surface. The deeper the service, the wider the trench, and hence the greater the disturbance. Below most Winchester streets, for example, there is now only undifferentiated stoney soil, and both the medieval and pre-conquest street surfaces have vanished, as well as a considerable depth of the underlying Roman deposits. The nature of modern construction is such that it is realistic in most cases where a new building is concerned either to decide on excavation or to accept the loss (or at least the reduction to meaningless fragments) of all except perhaps the lowest levels of occupation.

All ancient towns do not of course lie today under modern communities. Several of the towns of Roman Britain – Wroxeter, for example – are today in open country. This does not mean that their archaeology is safe from all threats, for modern deep ploughing, rural housing or industrial developments, the extraction of raw materials, especially gravel, or other activities may affect these towns. But from many points of view urban archaeology in a practical sense has to work on sites that have been continuously occupied since their inception. As has been explained, this length of occupation, combined with the relative size of urban communities, means that the archaeologist is faced with a very large physical problem of area and of depth. It is essential that the archaeological response to this situation should be on a scale appropriate to the size of the problem. Small trenches within great towns are unlikely, except in special cases, to do more than produce a sequence of pottery covering the period during which the town is already known to have been occupied, and a series of even less meaningful scraps of plans of uninterpretable structures. It is probably our failure to conduct archaeological investigations on an adequate scale which, more than any other factor, has led to the minimal impact made by the subject on more formal history. Of what use is a discipline that has a fatal tendency to raise far more problems than it solves; that fails to distinguish the typical from the atypical; that characteristically has to base its interpretations on a limited, sometimes very limited, view of the available evidence? As one who has had, over a series of years, to face the problem of interpreting both the totality of a building from the limited portion at that time excavated, *and* its structural and functional development, no one could know more clearly the dangers of interpretation based on partial evidence. How much more serious then when there is no intention, or perhaps possibility, of returning to extend the range of investigation to the whole, or an adequate part of the whole.

In such a situation it is necessary to define very clearly the objectives of any given piece of urban archaeological research, and to decide upon a scale of activity sufficient to provide reliable results, neither too fragmentary for interpretation nor so small as to risk being quite unrepresentative. Selectivity is a cardinal principle of urban archaeology.

Useful results in urban archaeology can be achieved in several different ways. The simplest and cheapest, and at the same time potentially one of the most informative, is the systematic collection of finds from every disturbance of a town's subsoil, whether by the digging of a service trench, the construction of a basement, or by any other activity. Fragments of ancient pottery are the commonest finds on most urban sites, and they can be roughly dated from their appearance. If they are carefully collected from every site and a proper record is made of their find-spots, a series of distribution maps can be built up showing the approximate extent of the occupied area of a town or its suburbs at different times in the past. Despite the simplicity of this process, it has seldom been systematically undertaken so as to provide a sequence of maps showing, for example, the waxing and waning of a suburb (as has been partly done for the northern area of Oxford). Nevertheless, if the material is regularly collected it can always be studied at a later date; the pottery salvaged from builders' trenches in the hey-day of Late-Victorian rebuilding in Cambridge in the 1880s and 1890s provided the basis for reconstructing the outlines of Late Saxon Cambridge in 1964.

Although the inadequacies of small trenches as a response to the problems of town archaeology have already been pointed out, there are some cases where they are the right answer, as in cutting sections of linear features, such as boundaries, streets, or defences. Here, and in the solution of precise problems in relation to known buildings, they may be the right as well as the economical solution.

The problems of urban archaeology can easily become diffuse. The certainty that every site is likely to produce archaeological evidence can quickly lead to an attempt to excavate on every site, and this can in turn lead to the frittering of limited resources.

Where urban archaeology cannot be precisely oriented to individual problems, where the need is quite simply to examine a relatively large area to establish the general pattern of development in a given town or part of a town, it must be expected that such a site will have to serve as a sample of a much wider area over which excavation would be quite impracticable for reasons of time, manpower, and financial resources. A selective approach even to large-scale, open-area excavation is thus a crucial aspect of the planning and administration of urban excavations. It is an approach which may make it possible to come to an agreement with a local authority whereby the excavation of a given site over a number of years is actually phased into a development plan. This happened with the Lower Brook Street site in Winchester, where the City Corporation, knowing that all archaeological effort in this area of the town would be concentrated on one site, and that there was thus no fear that other developments might be held up, agreed to allow excavations to continue on one site for seven years while their development was rephased to continue around the excavation (see Plate 8).

The problem with such sites is that they are very expensive and absorb a high proportion of the available archaeological energies and resources over many years. Their choice is a critical one and should always be made as far as possible in the light of a thorough knowledge of the relevant documentary sources, and of the general evolution of the town. Their purpose is essentially to establish the normal. Too much archaeology concentrates on, or is interested in, the exceptional, the rare, the unique. In town archaeology, as in other fields, it is an understanding of the normal patterns of development, the usual kinds of house, the typical evolution of street, that is the first essential without which no comparisons can be made. This is also the most difficult objective to achieve; without a long-term plan and a careful selection of sites from among the many 'opportunities' offered by the destruction of sites through redevelopment, without the resources – financial, legal, and administrative – to carry through an excavation on an adequate scale over a sufficient length of time, this intention cannot be achieved. Yet on account of these difficulties and because of the glamour of the exceptional, of Roman 'public' buildings as opposed to ordinary Roman town houses, of a medieval church as opposed to a row of medieval town houses, there is a great risk that rescue excavations in towns will constantly reveal the exceptional rather than the usual.

It is clear that the scale and complexity of urban archaeology demand financial resources of a very considerable size if any adequate response is to be made to the present rate of destruction. Funds are needed for two principal activities: for the work of survey and excavation, and for the necessary research and evaluation in preparation for publication. Experience in the last few years suggests that a large-scale urban project, such as York or Winchester, or that projected for London, may now cost as much as £100,000 a year; these figures are perhaps exceptional, but an annual expenditure of £10,000, or even £20,000, is becoming not uncommon. It can certainly be argued that there may be a level of expenditure below which the use of public money cannot be justified, for the results would be too incomplete and restricted to allow any valid interpretation, let alone far-ranging deductions.

Funds on this scale cannot be obtained from the private sector. In practice an urban project may be funded from several separate sources, but the principal contributors are normally the central government (through the DOE and the local authorities). The sources of finance for the Winchester excavations 1961–71 (see Plates 8, 9, and 10) were as appears in the table opposite.

To the cost of the excavation there has to be added the cost of the Winchester Research Unit engaged on publication: a total of about £220,000 over the years 1968–77, and a publication subsidy that will

probably reach about £20,000. Although the total of £390,000 for the years 1961–77 would have seemed unattainable even five years ago, it is clear that projects now beginning will far exceed this figure over a similar period of time; for example the York budget for 1972–7 is estimated at over £300,000, and the best estimates for London suggest that an annual expenditure of over £180,000 is required at once.

	£	%
Department of the Environment	71,218	47.3
Local authority:		
Winchester City	8,557	5.7
Hampshire County	27,497	18.2
United States universities	27,761	18.4
British Academy	3,600	2.4
Other UK sources	12,045	8.0
	150,678	100

Urban archaeology is indeed frighteningly expensive, but it needs to be remembered that the evidence is now being destroyed for ever, and that a time will come when this expenditure must inevitably reduce. The recent increases in the contribution of the central government for rescue archaeology, from £210,000 in 1971–2 to £460,000 in 1972–3, and to £813,000 in 1973–4, certainly reflect the special problems of urban archaeology. The figures from *The Erosion of History* quoted above show, however, that this expenditure will have to be very substantially increased over the next few years, not only to improve the quality and capability of existing work, but also to enable investigations to be extended to a more representative sample of British towns.

Improved financial resources will achieve much, for on the long-term programmes of major urban excavations the second most important problem can be solved: the training of further skilled manpower. Trained personnel are now in very short supply due to the chronic under-financing of British archaeology during the fifties and sixties. Finance and training need also the support of comprehensive archaeological legislation aimed at providing a framework within which the tasks of the urban, as indeed of any other, archaeologist can be carried out in the face of the extreme pressures from financial and administrative interests in public as well as private development. The principal requirements are fully set out in *The Erosion of History*: that the archaeological potential of a development site should be considered in the course of granting planning approval; that accredited archaeological agents should have a statutory right of access to development sites for the purpose of recording structures and objects uncovered; that there should in certain cases be provision in law for time for a properly conducted excavation; and that developers should contribute financially to the cost of excavation and its publication, since they are the agents of destruction of part of the public inheritance.

Mandatory legislation is not itself sufficient insurance against the present rate of destruction without record. The real solution lies in a widening public understanding that the history of a town lies as much below its pavements as in the records kept in its archives. This is why the first proposal for new legislation is so important. The experience archaeologists have had in recent years in dealing with local authorities has shown that once the archaeological problem is understood, once the case has been sensibly and effectively set out, the reaction has usually been positive and helpful. If therefore local authorities have to consider the archaeological potential of a site in granting planning approval for new development, this alone should bring about a greater appreciation of the scale and nature of archaeological problems, and will often lead to an appropriate solution. The stronger and more specific powers are, however, urgently required, for there is little indication that private developers, or even government agencies, are likely to be moved by the kind of local interest that will make a local authority take the appropriate action. An excellent case in point is the archaeology of New Palace Yard at Westminster where the Government have failed to undertake any excavation, however small, in advance of the construction of an underground car park. They have buttressed their decision by arguments about public interest, cost, and delays, that sound exactly like the ploys used by the most determined of private developers, on whose voluntary agreement to archaeological requests government policy for urban excavation at present uneasily rests.

Three administrative solutions have been adopted so far to meet the challenge posed by rescue archaeology in towns. There are independent excavation committees, as at Chichester, Oxford, Southampton, Winchester, or York; there are town museums which shoulder the burden alone, as at Chester, Exeter, or Gloucester, sometimes with the support of an advisory committee; and there are rare cases where, in the absence of any local organization, excavations financed by government funds have to be undertaken from outside the town, perhaps by staff from the nearest university. The DOE is naturally unwilling to shoulder the full cost of an urban excavation, rightly preferring to share the expense with the local authority. This solution is often simply not practical for excavations in rural districts but it should usually be possible in populated urban areas, and has the desirable effect of involving the local authority from the earliest stages. There are likely to be two difficulties: a town which has failed to develop some kind of local activity, and cannot offer at least a promise of local support, will find itself low down in the queue for a government grant. The moral: local interest can be well rewarded. Second, as the local authorities contributing to archaeology become more numerous, and as the size of their contributions increases, it cannot be expected that the DOE will always be able to match local funds. There may be thoroughly sound reasons for a local authority to support surveys or rescue excavations even in cases where on a national view the same project cannot qualify for matching funds, or perhaps even for any government grant. One can see that this may deter some local authorities, but an archaeological case will sometimes have to be made on a purely local basis.

There is a vast amount of support potentially available from local authorities in interest, in finance, and in kind. It is up to archaeologists, with the help of skilfully applied government grants, to tap this most important reservoir. The development of local committees, whether independent or advisory to local authorities, whether restricted to a single large town or embracing a group of smaller towns, but in each case representing the widest spectrum of local opinion, is perhaps the single most important action to be taken in each town or region.

The problem in general is very serious, as the figures already quoted show. In some places of the most obvious historic importance existing solutions are quite inadequate. This was the situation in London until improvement began in 1972 as a result of severe criticism from RESCUE, strong public pressure, and parliamentary questions. There are many other towns where nothing is being done at all. Some of these are large places, but the majority are small market towns. Excavations of one sort or another are taking place in many of the larger and more obviously 'historical' places, such as the ancient county towns, but the lack of attention to smaller towns means a serious imbalance in our understanding of the nature of urban growth and the conditions under which it has taken place. The CBA has prepared a report on the archaeological problems of a geographically scattered sample of these smaller places. The DOE has declared its intention of doing all it can to support rescue work in such towns. The solution lies in the hands of interested people, archaeologists and others, in these places and in the regions surrounding them. The development of local urban research committees able to focus attention on specific problems and opportunities, and to act as recipients and administrators of government grants, is an essential step that ought to be relatively easy to achieve.

In general, however, there remain the national problems: inadequate legislation, a continuing shortage of funds, a serious shortage of properly trained manpower. These can be gradually overcome by a wider public appreciation of the nature of archaeology and of the need for rescue work while there is still time. There are also academic problems. The principal requirement is for combined studies with a mutual exchange of ideas and questions between urban historians, geographers, and archaeologists. And archaeologists must themselves ensure higher standards of excavation, recording, and publication, and a constantly critical approach to existing methods and interpretations, and to ideas and attitudes that are all too often preconceived. We are still very far from generally agreed standards in archaeology, and there is a disturbingly wide variety of practice and of competence. In a field where first-class workers are few there is a natural but deadly tendency to make appointments at too low a level and sometimes to appoint inexperienced or even unsatisfactory people to jobs where they will be faced with archaeological problems of daunting and bewildering complexity, and where they will be the sole person responsible for the recording of primary evidence.

These are in part the inevitable failings of a small, young profession, emerging from years of financial neglect and administrative inertia. They are problems which have to be solved in the midst of a challenge: the recovery and recording of the evidence for our ancient past in town and country during the few short years in which the eroding deposits of history survive at least reasonably intact.

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IMAGES

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Ecomuseums in France: contradictions and distortions

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Born in Roquefort, Landes, France, in 1952. Graduated in philosophy and the sociology of communication and French ethnology. Organizer of the Écomusée de la Grande-Lande, 1976-82. Curator of the Musée de Bretagne, Rennes, since 1983 and collaborator with the team of Jean-Yves Veillard in the programme of the Pays de Rennes Ecomuseum; he has also co-ordinated the work on the exhibition and publication entitled *Découvrir les écomusées*.

For a decade now, a proliferation of opinions that have confused theory with doctrine has done nothing to clarify the ecomuseum philosophy, the basic ideas of which, in spite of their complexity, had nevertheless been clearly laid down. It is as though the idea had become of such importance (and perhaps it became important in order to attract the subsidies) that under no circumstances must it be specified. The result is that the ecomuseum, which was supposed to concern itself first and foremost with the collective memory, now displays an amazing ability to forget its own history. It has invented a chronology that bears little resemblance to the stages of implementation of the various projects and developed a mythology most of whose heroes never had more than very minor parts to play.[1] Certain publications, some very official ones among them, do not so much as mention Georges Henri Rivière as one of the originators of the idea!

It is impossible, today, to show a foreign colleague visiting France a single example that incorporates all the principles he would find in theoretical essays. His itinerary would take him to four or five sites very far from one another, each of which would show him only one facet of ecomuseology. The general public, for its part, is convinced (whether through imagination or observation) that an ecomuseum is a reconstruction of an old workshop or farm. The discrepancy between theory and practice is now quite evident. True, everyone has made a theory out of his own practice, trying to make it fit the 'evolutive definition of ecomuseums'[2] even if it was initially very far removed from that definition. There is, after all, nothing to restrict use of the term, and anyone can use it and interpret it as he pleases. People of genius (at times) have run together theories dealing with separate aspects, but because they were not familiar with ecomuseums in practice, they could not produce anything better than purely intellectual speculation. To make matters worse still, ecomuseums have had to cope with the severe effects of the current economic crisis.

An idea and its distortion

In 1967, the French Regional Nature Parks were established, by grouping together rural councils and providing substantial financial backing in order to implement a policy of economic and cultural development. Georges Henri Rivière took that opportunity to adapt the Scandinavian open-air museums to the French context, with the difference that houses would not be moved to an artificial site, but that sites would be restored to their former condition. These new museums aimed to offer all-round education, not just dealing with cultural practices or architecture but also with the relations between man and his environment.[3] They represented a first attempt at a combination of the human and natural sciences. These experiments, for which the name of ecomuseum was coined shortly after, in 1971, clearly expressing their environmental aspect, very soon met with great success, echoing the development in the public at large of ecological and regional ideas.

An additional experiment was conducted between 1971 and 1974 with the support of Hugues de Varine, then director of ICOM. Within the newly formed Urban Community of Le Creusot Montceau-les-Mines a project took shape for a museum of man and industry spread over the whole area, making the closest possible contact with the people living there. They were all to be involved in planning, running, evaluation, etc., and their involvement was facilitated by the decision to opt for the status of an association. In 1974, this experiment took the name of ecomuseum, and the new prospects it opened up produced still more ideas, especially about the territory embraced by the ecomuseum and about public investment. From then on, the prefix 'eco' indicated an interest in the natural as well as the social environment.

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[1] It is more or less accepted as fact nowadays, for example, that the first ecomuseum was that at Le Creusot in central France, even though it opened in 1971, four years after the French Regional Nature Parks.

[2] Georges Henri Rivière produced three successive versions of this definition — in 1973, 1976 and 1980. He deliberately restricted its length, so as to set out the basic features of the ecomuseum while leaving great scope for experiment.

[3] Among the best-known of the Park ecomuseums are those of Monts d'Arrée and Basse Seine.

Ecomuseums thus came into being as a result of the meeting of two movements that came, as it were, from opposite directions.[4] On the one hand there was a century of thinking on museums, which was brought to a conclusion and summed up by Georges Henri Rivière and which found an immediate response from the public because of its central concern with ecology and regional ethnology. On the other hand, given the desire for involvement and self-management, there was the need for a new kind of museum. The coming together of the two movements led to the development of a museographical system which, in its ideal form, around the museum of time, organizes a museum of space, a field laboratory (with a workshop, documentation centre and, where appropriate, a shop), and outposts or communities associated with local routes and pathways. This is all managed by three committees—users, administrators and scientific advisers—which allows everyone to be involved in a 'centre of mutual instruction' with the principal aim of developing the community.

The intense cultural and ideological ferment from which the first ecomuseums emerged should not, however, blind us to the fact that they came into being in a period of economic prosperity, unlike subsequent ecomuseums, especially those opened after 1977, which are in the majority. Ideas born in prosperity are always difficult to adapt to a recession, and when factories are closing one after another the ecomuseum must accept that its philosophy of development and even, at times, its existence will be called into question since a large proportion of the public will prefer their resources to be channelled into enterprises that provide jobs.

In addition to unsettling some basic principles, the economic crisis has caused distortions which are much more disturbing. Every difficult period sees a proliferation of historical and ethnographical museums whose purpose is to smooth away worries about the future by extolling the values of the past.

Thus a great number of 'little ecomuseums' have opened since 1977. They rarely build on the base of groups of district councils, as their forerunners did, and for this reason it is not easy for them to expand the area they cover. As a result they find it hard to come up with a clear programme, particularly since their resources are often limited. They nevertheless proclaim loudly and clearly their conformity with the 'evolutive definition of the ecomuseum', since they need to be recognized as such. The term is used to salve the conscience. The elaborate philosophy of development professed by the ecomuseum hides the backward-looki tendencies of most of these newer establishments. In practice, the past is mythified through harvest festivals and the present-day period is totally absent from the museum's programme, if indeed it has a programme. In fact, these different establishments are more apt to tell the sociologist about the fears and illusions of our society than they are to tell the museologist about new museographical practice.

As Jean-Yves Veillard has observed, this is the basic dilemma of the ecomuseum: Is it an authentic reappropriation of a heritage by the people, or is it the refuge of new classes opposed to socio-economic change?[5]

Caught between myth and utopia

Many third-generation ecomuseums (those of the French Regional Nature

2
ÉCOMUSÉE DE LA COMMUNAUTÉ LE CREUSOT MONTCEAU-LES-MINES.
The participation of the population as an indispensable dynamizing element is a principle which is at the heart of the ecomuseum concept.

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[4] For detailed histories see Hugues de Varine, 'L'Écomusée', *Gazette de l'Association des Musées Canadiens* (Ottawa), Vol. 104, No. 2, 1978, pp. 29-40, and F. Hubert, J.-Y. Veillard and H. Joubeaux, *Découvrir les écomusées*, Rennes, Musée de Bretagne, 1984, 48 pp., photographs, bibliog. (45 francs).

[5] J.-Y. Veillard, 'Les musées d'ethnographie, les musées impossibles de l'hexagone', unpublished paper given at a seminar on the ethnological heritage, Rennes, 1983.

Parks being the first generation and that of Le Creusot being the second) have taken this contradiction to extremes, leading the French newspaper *Libération* to describe them as the 'museums of the recession'.

They draw their philosophy from the participatory approach of Le Creusot, calling themselves 'community eco-museums' in order to express the self-development philosophy they preach, as opposed to the 'institutional eco-museums', initially represented by the Parks generation. in which the public does, in fact, play a less prominent role. In legal terms, the difference between the community and the institutional is that the institutional is attached to a local group or to some official body and the community is independent, deriving its independence from the provisions of the French law of 1901, governing the creation of private associations.

Nevertheless, in spite of its cumbersome nature, administration by some official body does guarantee the continuity of the institutional ecomuseum without ruling out the possibility of a users' association. It might also be argued that the status of association makes the existence of the community ecomuseum uncertain and that its independence from authority is a trap. It must continually go in search of subsidies, which are reconsidered each year and can be used to bring considerable pressure to bear. The future of the ecomuseum depends entirely on the goodwill of its backers and in order to survive it must make concessions, involving itself in political manoeuvres. The ecomuseum programme could then be manipulated by the political party in control, and by a supreme paradox the museum would then become an instrument of manipulation! Seen in this light, the community ecomuseum is a gift to the political authorities, who can limit its cost and at the same time control what it does.

The same may be said of the ideology the ecomuseum develops. Contrary to the spirit of opposition it proclaims, the ecomuseum is far from being subversive, as its programme aims to establish a real consensus between all sections of the population. The three committees thus constitute the formal structure through which this consensus is achieved. The old dream of the golden age is ubiquitous. Through harvest festivals, there takes shape the image of an ideal social life which serves as a point of reference for ecomuseums of industrial areas follow the same rule, since they tend to deal with the history of techniques rather than with social history, and even when they do mention the paternalism of the nineteenth-century mill-owners, they are less forthcoming about the major conflicts, the class struggles and the perennial friction between social groups.[6]

This picture, which we have darkened deliberately, depicts the chief problem of an ecomuseum — that of steering a course between the Scylla of a mythical past and the Charybdis of a utopian future. It is, of course, difficult to be part of the present as can be seen from the experiences of the ecomuseums in new towns, where social differences are compounded with differences in culture and civilization. What can the ecomuseum do in such places except offer a totally artificial identity to people who have been displaced and who, in addition, come into violent conflict with the ways of the original inhabitants?

The territory, another central concept of ecomuseology, takes on such significance in certain projects that it becomes the projection of every 'micronationalist' fantasy. People cheerfully rename hills and valleys, or set up gates to the ecomuseum which do not so much inform the traveller of its existence as show the population the frontiers of its 'little homeland',[7] extolling its unique qualities and, indeed, its superiority. It is almost as though a minority, bypassing the ballot-box, had legitimized its power by creating a new nation. This is because the ecomuseum, aiming for a comprehensive approach to the territory, naturally develops a strong tendency towards hegemony. All social, cultural and economic activities must pass through it, to the implicit exclusion of any other body. It should come as no surprise, therefore, that ecomuseums in France have never been subjected to virulent criticism by the political parties or by many newspapers.[8] They do not cause much trouble, they take care of the socio-cultural life of the community, use voluntary work, cost less than many other kinds of organization and, with their desire to create a better world, serve as an outlet for political militancy.

It cannot be denied, however, that ecomuseums of all kinds are efficient organizers. The philosopher Henri Pierre Jeudy has remarked that 'the making of a museum does more than express in practice the commonly held opinion that conservation is a good thing. It also develops various kinds of cultural exchange. The preparation and development of a museum necessarily imply the bringing together of objects and documents, which generates social communication.'[9] The programme of an ecomuseum involves a significant sector of the general public and makes for a

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[6] This point was dealt with in 1978 in a little-known but very interesting article — Anonymous (P. L. N.), 'Un écomusée ce n'est pas un musée comme les autres', *Histoire et critique des arts* (Paris), December 1978, pp. 90-102.

[7] This expression comes from the conservative regionalist movements which, from the late nineteenth century, prompted the opening of local museums. See article on page 242 by Alfredo Crus-Ramirez.

[8] Only newspapers of the left and extreme left have made any criticism at all, the French daily *Libération* being foremost in this respect. The only serious critique, to my knowledge, is the article that appeared in *Histoire et critique des arts*, op. cit., a publication which classes itself as extreme left.

[9] H. P. Jeudy, *'L'échange et l'objet'*, extract from a paper given at a conference entitled 'Constituer aujourd'hui la mémoire de demain', held at Rennes in December 1984, whose papers will soon be published by the association

more intense social life. The danger in the community ecomuseum is that it might never progress beyond such a role. What leads to distortions and contradictions is the absence of the scientific dimension from most of these museums. When there is no detachment or spirit of criticism, the 'mirror museum' shows the society in question not as it is but as it wishes to see itself, with all the exaggerations implicit in such an attitude.

Only by comparing a scientific interpretation with the way the inhabitants see themselves can a dialogue be engendered that might lead beyond this situation. However, any possibility of a comparison is ruled out if, instead of a permanent exhibition, scientifically planned on Georges Henri Rivière's 'periodized interdisciplinary' basis, attention is focused on small, temporary exhibitions arranged directly by the public without any outside assistance. This is why the permanent exhibition is the keystone of the ecomuseum and not simply a chance product of its organization. Similarly, public involvement should be understood not as the expression of a wide-ranging consensus but as a means of highlighting conflicts and contradictions.

The ecomuseum must not be restricted to conservation alone, but it must be equally wary of community organization activities to the exclusion of anything else, since it is always in danger of overemphasizing one side or the other. The institutional ecomuseum tends to confine itself to the scientific and conservational concerns of the old, local museums, while the community ecomuseum is tending to rejoin the ranks of the community cultural centres.

Do ecomuseums have a future?

The balance between conservation and outreach to the community does not in itself define the ecomuseum. Most traditional museums achieve it just as well, and have done so for a long time. The originality of the ecomuseum is the

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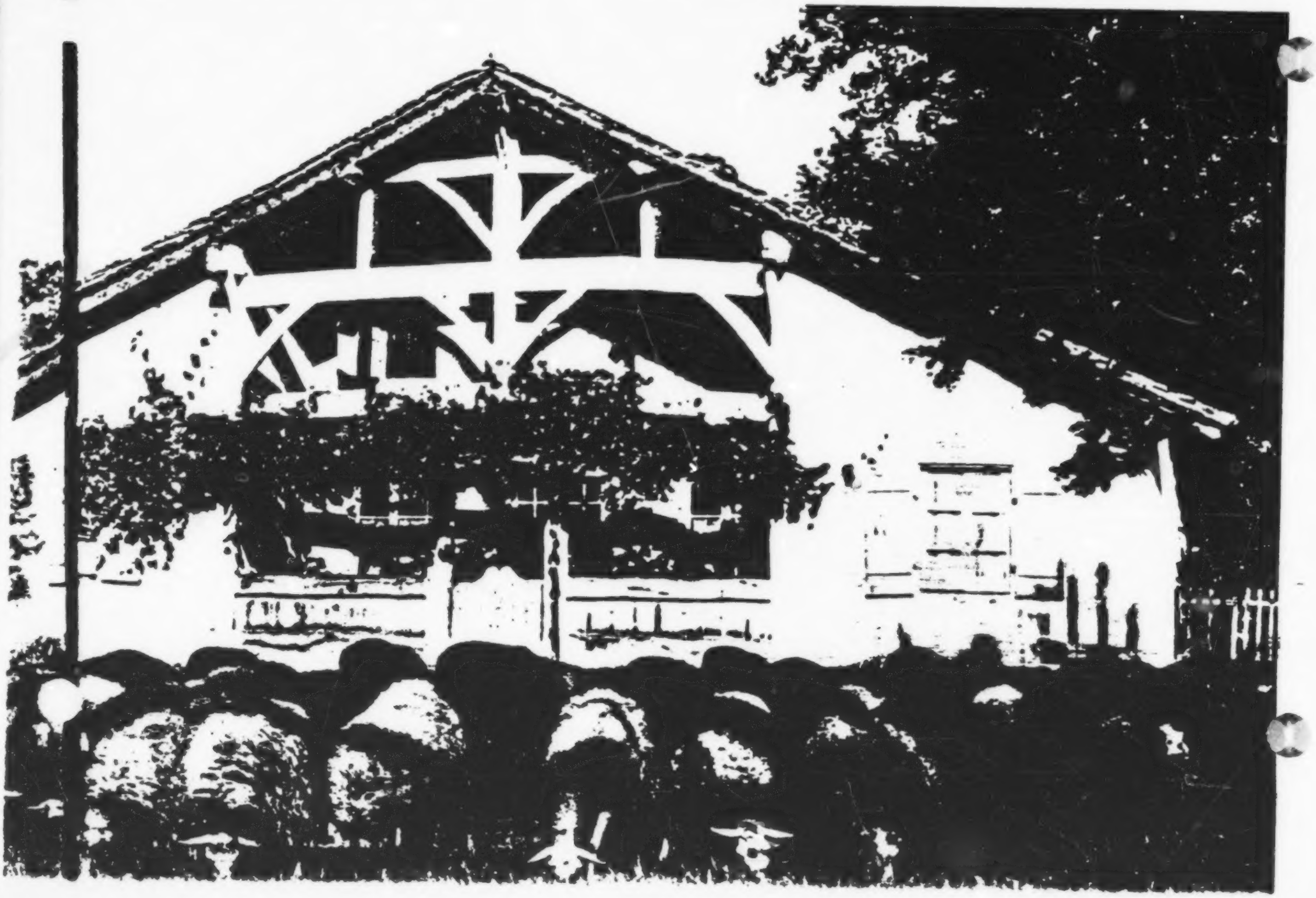
ECOMUSÉE DE LA GRANDE-LANDE, France. The Marquèze house—the first park ecomuseums sought to conserve whole environments, within which objects and buildings found a special meaning.



4
A view of the territory of the future Pays de Rennes Ecomuseum as presented in the contemporary Brittany section at the Musée de Bretagne. The ecomuseum must deal with the contemporary, interpreting the present rather than exalting the past.

astonishing capacity it has shown for catching up with its own day, for confronting the present in order to offer it a new humanism over and above the image it reflects. The ecomuseum, like other kinds of museum that came into being at the same time or a little earlier (such as the Musée National, Niamey, the Casa del Muséo, Mexico City, and the neighbourhood museum)[10] completely undermined the notion of the universal museum that is fixed in time and space. As an alternative, it presented specific forms by which each micro-society could display its heritage objectively and put into practice in the field (unless it actually helped to elaborate) the ideas of the Santiago round table in 1972, for example that

> the museum is an institution in the service of society of which it forms an inseparable part and, of its very nature, contains the elements which enable it to help in moulding the consciousness of the communities it serves.[11]

But even as it broke with the traditional museum, the ecomuseum needed to find legitimacy. It did not want to lose what it had gained. It wanted, if not a charter, then at least some 'principles of organization' (in France such principles were endorsed by the Ministry of Culture in 1980) that would guarantee its special status and ensure that it was recognized by 'the authorities'.[12] It did, in fact, gain recognition, and at the same time (one suspects a ploy) so did all the experiments and theories that arrogated its name, robbing it of its value in the process.

As Georges Henri Rivière said:

> Ecomuseums are coming on like a house on fire! But the appalling thing is that on the one hand progress is made and on the other there are two or three characters who are jumping on the bandwagon and are making quite a system of it. The idea is so spectacular and so productive that it attracts such people.[13]

The ecomuseum has clearly been through many a battle, and perhaps the decisive ones are yet to come. The ecomuseum does not have to fear this deliberate or accidental dilution or exploitation so much as the changes in society, as its confrontation with the economic crisis has shown. The world of today has little in common with the one that produced the ecomuseum. Beyond the new technologies can be glimpsed another view of mankind and the world which opens up vast horizons to the ecomuseum, since science museums and centres of scientific and technical culture are apparently restricting themselves to the technical dimension. Perhaps the 'new humanism' of the fourth-generation ecomuseums has happy days ahead.

That fourth generation has yet to be thought up, however.

[*Translated from French*]

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[10] See the article by Pablo Toucet, 'The Museum of Niamey and Its Environment', *Museum*, Vol. XXIV, No. 4, 1972, pp. 204-7, and that by Coral Ordóñez Garcia, 'The Casa del Muséo, Mexico City: An Experiment in Bringing the Museum to the People', *Museum*, Vol. XXVII, No. 2, 1975, pp. 71-7.

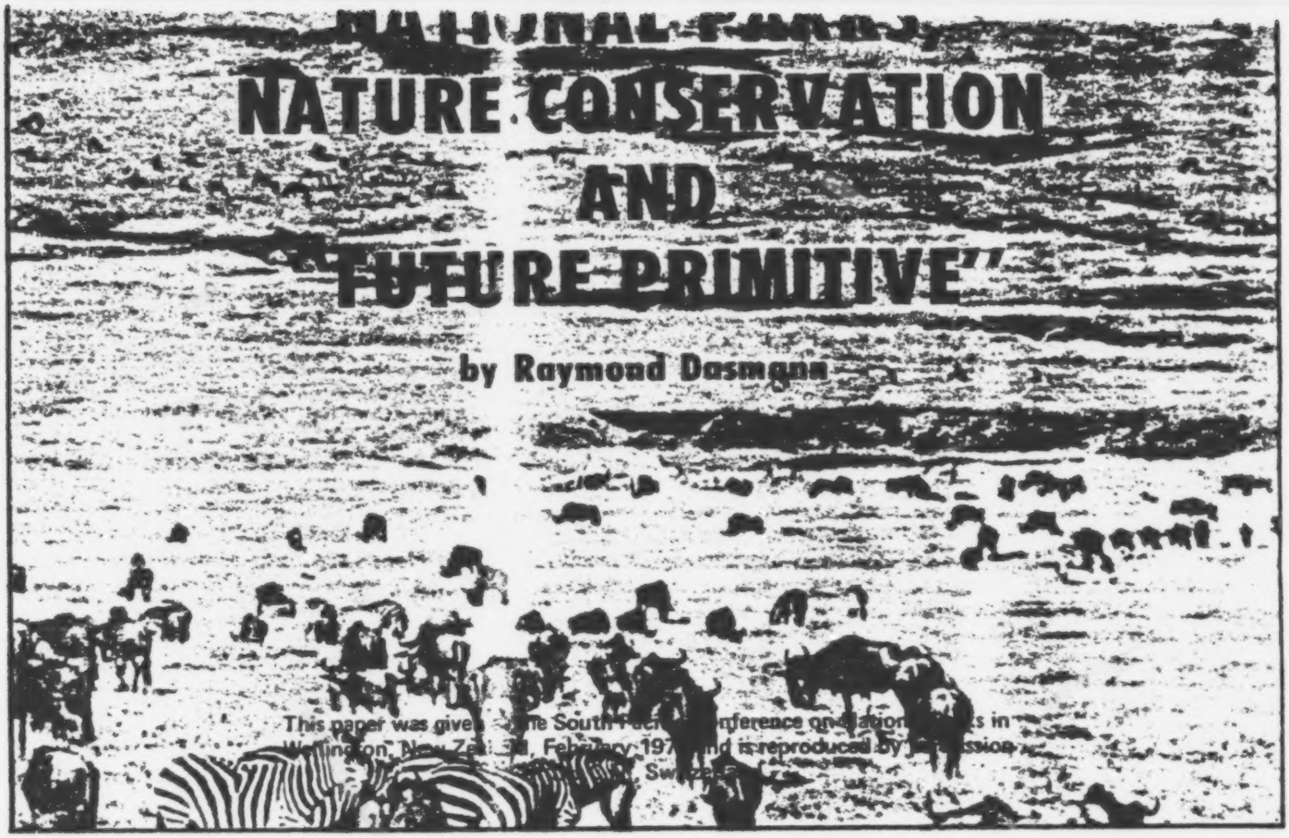
[11] This extract from the Resolutions adopted at the Santiago da Chile round table of 1972 (see *Museum*, Vol. XXV, No. 3, 1973) was quoted as an epigraph to the preparatory documents for the first international workshop of ecomuseums and new museologies, Montreal, Quebec, 1984. See article on page 200 by Pierre Mayrand.

[12] See also the chapter on ecomuseums in the report 'For a New Heritage Policy' by Max Querrien, Chairman of the Caisse Nationale des Monuments Historiques et des Sites, for the French Ministry of Culture in 1982.

[13] From an interview in *Le Monde*, 8-9 July 1979, entitled 'Le musicien muséographe qui inventa aussi les écomusées'.

NATIONAL PARKS, NATURE CONSERVATION AND "FUTURE PRIMITIVE"

by Raymond Dasmann



This paper was give[illegible]he South Paci[illegible]onference on National [illegible]s in Wellington, New Zea[illegible], February 197[illegible] and is reproduced by [illegible]ssion [illegible], Switzerland.

Those who have grown up in Europe or North America, and have assimilated the view of history proclaimed in those civilizations, know that once there was a paradise on earth and it was called the South Pacific. For more than two centuries, adherents of western technological culture have been fleeing from the supposed benefits of their culture in search of that paradise or its remnants. The more they have searched, the farther it has receded from their vision. Finally, in desperation, they have attempted to recreate it in the tourist lands of Hawaii or Tahiti. But the new model has not been pleasing to the soul.

The Search for Paradise

More than a century ago, the European invaders of North America were pushing into what they called the wilderness of the West. Most were concerned only with the problems and perils of each day, but a few could see the realities about them with a vision that transcended the purely utilitarian. George Catlin, the artist, was one of these who was greatly disturbed by the destruction of the North American bison and its consequences for the future of the Plains Indian people. He had a proposal that he hoped might save both wildlife and people:

> "And what a splendid contemplation too, when one . . . imagines them as they might in the future be seen . . . preserved in their pristine beauty and wildness, in a *magnificent park*, where the world could see for ages to come, the native Indian in his classic attire, galloping his wild horse, with sinewy bow, and shield and lance, amid the fleeting herds of elks and buffaloes. What a beautiful and thrilling specimen for America to preserve and hold up to the view of her refined citizens and the world, in future ages! *A nation's Park*, containing man and beast, in all the wild and freshness of their nature's beauty!" (Nash, 1968).

This proposal made in 1832 is commonly regarded as being the first request that a large area of wild America be set aside as a national park. Let us ignore for the moment the obvious chauvinism, since this characterized most 19th century Europeans. Catlin's was no modest proposal, for he wanted the entire Great Plains from Mexico to Canada set aside for the protection and use of those people and animals to whom it rightfully belonged.

At the time there was no receptive audience. The West was being won by those to whom, in Catlin's words "*power* is *right* and *voracity* a *virtue*". Viewed from the other side, however, the howling wilderness that these narrow men were trying to subdue looked quite different. In the words of Chief Standing Bear of the Oglala Sioux Indians (McLuhan, 1971):

> "We did not think of the great open plains, the beautiful rolling hills, and winding streams with tangled growth as 'wild'. Only to the white man was nature a 'wilderness' and only to him was the land 'infested' with 'wild' animals and 'savage' people. To us it was tame. Earth was bountiful and we were surrounded with the blessings of the Great Mystery. Not until the hairy man from the east came and with brutal frenzy heaped injustices upon us and the families we loved was it 'wild' for us. When the very animals of the forest began fleeing from his approach, then it was for us the 'Wild West' began."

The National Parks Movement

Forty years after Catlin's time, in

States proclaimed the world's first national park in the Yellowstone region of the territory of Wyoming. Eighteen years after that, shortly after Christmas in 1890, the Army of the United States surrounded and massacred most of the last independent band of the Sioux Indians at a place called Wounded Knee in South Dakota. A survivor, Black Elk, stated:

> "... something else died there in the bloody mud, and was buried in the blizzard. A people's dream died there. It was a beautiful dream . . . the nation's hoop is broken and scattered. There is no center any longer, and the sacred tree is dead"(Brown, 1971).

Later, half of Catlin's dream was realized. The animals were given the first national park. The Indians had a different appointment with destiny.

The national park movement, started at Yellowstone, has been generally regarded as a great success. When many of us met at Grand Teton and Yellowstone, in 1972, we noted that there were more than 1200 national parks or their equivalents throughout the world that met the high standards of the United Nations' List (IUCN, 1974). The centennial of the national parks movement was a stirring occasion for those of us who favour conservation. But I wonder how many noted that in the following year, 1973, a band of Oglala Sioux and other Indians seized and held the town of Wounded Knee, South Dakota, for many months, in a dramatic protest against treaty violations. They were asking, among other things, that the lands that had been guaranteed to them by solemn treaties wth the United States government, be in fact given back to them. Some of these lands are in national parks (Burnette and Koster, 1974).

These things are mentioned because I believe that this is a good time to re-examine the entire concept of national parks and all equivalent protected areas. To begin with, those who were responsible for the creation of the system of protected areas in the United States, including national parks, national forests, wildlife refuges and many other categories, were attempting to establish buffers against the greed and rapacity of their fellow citizens. In the 1850s Henry David Thoreau had proclaimed the necessity for protecting at least some areas in which nature could remain intact against the destructive forces of civilization. In the 1860s George Perkins

tion being created by deforestation and the misuse of lands (Nash, 1968). During the decades before Yellowstone was set aside, and until the first national forests were reserved in the 1890s, it was not only the Indians who were being massacred. In the 1860s, because of heavy use by domestic grazing animals, virtually the entire native grassland area of California was knocked out, and the grasslands that developed in its place were dominated by exotics from Europe and Asia. A good share of the hardwood forests of eastern America had been cut down and similar destruction was starting in the West. Farming lands, particularly in the American South, were misused and abandoned in an eroded, infertile state. Wildlife was being slaughtered everywhere.

It is little wonder that those concerned with conservation of nature attempted to set some areas aside, and it is remarkable that they were as successful as they were in doing so. But is there not cause to wonder that it was accepted that those lands outside the national parks were going to be beaten and battered, or used in such a way that any hope for the survival of wildlife in their vicinity was to be considered an idle dream? Is it not strange that it was taken for granted that people and nature were somehow incompatible, and that the drive for profit or power must take precedence over any concern for the kind of world in which people live? People were not always that way. Pehaps it would be well to listen once more to Chief Standing Bear of the Oglala Sioux (known in his day as the Lakotas) (McLuhan, 1971):

> "Kinship with all creatures of the earth, sky and water was a real and active principle. For the animal and bird world there existed a brotherly feeling that kept the Lakota safe among them and so close did some of the Lakotas come to their feathered and furred friends that in true brotherhood they spoke a common tongue.
>
> "The old Lakota was wise. He knew that man's heart away from nature becomes hard; he knew that lack of respect for growing, living things soon led to lack of respect for humans too. So he kept his youth close to its softening influence."

Here in the Pacific, if one is to judge from the writings of the early European visitors and invaders, much of the same attitude toward nature must have prevailed. Sir

the Pacific, grew quite ecstatic about the ways of life of the island people and the balance that existed between humanity and the natural world. All who visited the islands before the traders, the raiders, and the missionaries did their evil work, seemed to share that opinion. Among th Australian aboriginal people was a sense of responsibility that was continually renewed by the visions of Dreamtime through which people were restored to unity with heaven and earth (Meggitt, 1974).

Ecosystem People vs Biosphere People

In an earlier paper (Dasmann, 1974), I have postulated that there are two types of people in the world, *ecosystem people* and *biosphere people*. In the former category are all of the members of indigenous traditional cultures and some who have seceded from, or have been pushed out of, technological society; in the latter are those who are tied in with the global technological civilization. Ecosystem people live within a single ecosystem, or at most two or three adjacent and closely related ecosystems. They are dependent upon that ecosystem for their survival. If they persistently violate its ecological rules, they must necessarily perish. Thus a hunting people wh continually kill more wild game tha can be produced by the normal reproduction of wild animal populations must run out of food and starve. A fishing people who persist in overfishing will destroy their base of support. Those who practise subsistence agriculture must develop some means for keeping the soil in place and for restoring its fertility. Island people have lived under particularly strong restraints, and could not tolerate any great increase in their own numbers, since the resources of islands are not only limited but tend to make their limitations obvious. Only continental people can develop myths of unlimited resources.

Biosphere people draw their support, not from the resources of any one ecosystem, but from the entire biosphere. Any large modern city is the focus for a network of transportation and communication that reaches throughout the globe — drawing perhaps beef from Argentina, lamb from New Zealand, wheat from Canada, tea from Ceylon, c fee from Brazil, herring from t North Atlantic, and so on. Local catastrophes that would wipe out system may create only minor perturbations among the biosphere people, since they can simply draw more heavily on a different ecosystem. Consequently, biosphere people can exert incredible pressure upon an ecosystem that they wish to exploit, and create great devastation — something that would be impossible or unthinkable for people who were dependent upon that particular ecosystem. The impact of biosphere people upon ecosystem people has usually been destructive. Even if the intentions of the biosphere invaders are the best, and they seldom are, their effect is to break down the local constraints, the traditional practices that have held the delicate balances between humanity and nature, and thus allow ecosystem destruction to take place.

Indiginous Societies Displaced

Here in the Pacific we see some glaring examples of what happens when ecosystem peoples are brought into the biosphere network. The people of Nauru would never have thought of mining their island out from under themselves, until they were tied into the trade and transportation of the biosphere network. The same applies to other phosphate islands. No ecosystem person would have thought of taking the top off New Caledonia to get at the nickel, until he was sucked into the biosphere network. In Australia there is an enormous uranium deposit, an estimated 1 per cent of the world's known supply, on aboriginal land at a place called Gabo Djang. According to Robert Allen, this is known to the Aborgines as the Dreaming Place of the Green Ant, and if it is desecrated, the Great Green Ant, one of the powerful spirits, will come down and ravage the world. Queensland Mines Limited offered the Aborigines the munificent sum of $7,425 in 1971 for the right to mine this 300-million-dollar ore supply, but later raised the offer to $891,000 along with more than 13 million dollars in royalties. The offer was for a long time refused, but in December 1974 it was reported that the people had agreed to sell. The biosphere people have again triumphed and that much more uranium will be turned loose to do the work of the Great Green Ant in ravaging the world (Allen, 1974). Admittedly, some of the ecosystem people who sell out to the biosphere network become very rich, which permits them to go somewhere else to live — *that the biosphere people have not destroyed.*

Biosphere people *create* national parks. Ecosystem people have *always* lived in the equivalent of a national park. It is the kind of country that ecosystem people have always protected that biosphere people want to have formally reserved and safeguarded. But, of course, first the ecosystem people must be removed — or at least that has been the prevailing custom. The consequences are almost always destructive to the people affected. Colin Turnbull's book *The Mountain People* is a particularly disturbing account of what happened to a hunting-subsistence-agriculture people when they were pushed out of Uganda's Kidepo Valley National Park (Turnbull, 1972). A similar, but perhaps less severe, disintegration took place among the elephant-hunting Waliangulu who were displaced by Tsavo National Park — a park that has subsequently suffered from a plague of elephants (Gomm, 1974). As Tururin, chief of the Pataxo Indians of Brazil, has put it "We Indians are like plants: when changed from one place to another we don't die but we never fully recover. We will not leave here because even before the reservation existed we already lived on this land. It may be bad, it may be good but it's our land." But in Brazil the previously isolated ecosystem people are being threatened or destroyed by the massive drive for the exploitation of Amazonia — a process far less benign than any effort to create national parks(Supysáua, 1974).

It is characteristic of wealthier biosphere people that they do not want to stay at home. They wander the globe always searching — searching for something they seem to have lost along the way in their rush to capture the resources of the world and accumulate its wealth. Thus they give rise to the tourist industry, and this in turn provides a financial justification for creating and maintaining national parks. In these parks the wanderers can see some of the wonders that they left behind, and can pretend for a while that they have not really destroyed the natural world — at least not all of it. They will pay highly for this experience. But for some reason the money nearly always tends to be channelled back into the biosphere network. It does not go to those who were once ecosystem people and who have the strange idea that what is now called a national park is really just the land that was home.

time. National parks must not serve as a means for displacing the members of traditional societies who have always cared for the land and its biota. Nor can national parks survive as islands surrounded by hostile people who have lost the land that was once their home. Parks cannot survive in a natural state if they are surrounded by lands that are degraded or devastated by failure to obey the simplest ecological rules. Today, with the increase in human numbers and the enormous pressure being exerted on all ecosystems, one of the distinctions between ecosystem and total biosphere is being broken down. No longer can biosphere people remain buffered against the breakdown of particular ecosystems. A drought in India or North America now has global repercussions. The entire biosphere is now becoming as closely interconnected through human endeavour as the most delicately balanced ecosystem within it. Not just national parks but nature conservation in its fullest sense are now becoming absolutely vital.

Few anywhere would argue with the concept of national parks, but many would argue with the way the concept has been applied — too often at the cost of displacement of traditional cultures, and nearly always with insufficient consideration for the practices and policies affecting the lands outside of the park.

Establishing National Parks in the South Pacific

Here in the South Pacific there is no doubt that more national parks, or something equivalent to them, are badly needed. There is some question, however, about what kind of national park, and how it is to fit in with the patterns of life, and the necessities of life, for those people who inhabit the Pacific. I would suggest that the ideal national park for the Pacific islands would be fairly close to what existed here before the invaders from Europe and Asia took over. I do not propose, however, that we attempt to turn back the clock. I am suggesting, however, that in going forward we take into account some rules that should be mandatory for those agencies, national or international, responsible for advocating or creating new national parks.

1. The rights of members of indigenous cultures to the lands they have traditionally occupied must be recognized, and any plans for establishing parks or reserves in these

tion with, and in agreement with, the people involved. Papua/New Guinea has been taking some noteworthy initiatives in this direction, and I trust that their government will continue along this course. Furthermore, the Australian government has now fully recognized the rights of its Aborigines to their lands, including full control of mineral rights.

2. Recognizing the long-prevailing balances that have existed between people and nature in areas where traditional societies have remained isolated from the influence of biosphere cultures, the establishment of fully protected areas in which these people can maintain their isolation *for as long as they wish to do so* should be encouraged. Such areas will do much to further the conservation of nature, and equally important, will protect ways-of-life that are in balance with nature. We all have much to learn from these traditional cultures. In this respect there are some examples to follow. The Manu National Park in Peru shelters an isolated Indian tribe which, for the present at least, remains undisturbed. The Odzala National Park in the Congo provides a home for Pygmy peoples. In Botswana and South Africa the 6 million hectares of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve and Kalahari Gemsbok National Parks permit the Bushmen to continue their traditonal hunting life. There were once some good examples in Brazil also, but I am afraid that these are being brushed aside in the sacred name of "development" (Supysaua, 1974).

3. Wherever national parks are created, their protection needs to be co-ordinated with the people who occupy the surrounding lands. Those who are most affected by the presence of a national park must fully share in its benefits, financial or other. They must become the protectors of the park, whether they are directly employed by the park, receive a share of park receipts, or are in other ways brought to appreciate its value. Without this, we will find that we are entering a waiting game, at best. The people outside the park will await the change in government or the relaxation of vigilance that will permit them to invade the park.

4. Land use in areas surrounding parks must be compatible with the protection of nature inside the park. This too will require negotiation and understanding among the people who own or occupy these lands. It cannot be effectively accomplished decree unless the lands are unoccupied.

This is not a comprehensive list of rules, but only an attempt to emphasize those rules which have been far too generally ignored in the establishment of national parks in the past. However, if national parks are really to survive, and if they are going to accomplish their objectives, then we must have more than just a set of rules concerning the parks and their surroundings. I cannot see much hope for the future of either parks or people, unless some of the old sense of belonging to the natural world, of being a part of nature, and not hostile to it, is restored. In an article prepared for *Planet Drum*, Jerry Gorsline and Linn House have made this comparison:

> "We have been awakened to the richness and complexity of the primitive mind which merges sanctity, food, life and death — where culture is integrated with nature at the level of the *particular ecosystem* and employs for its cognition a body of metaphor drawn from and structured in relation to that ecosystem. We have found therein a mode of thinking parallel to modern science but operating at the entirely different level of sensible intuition, a tradition that prepared the ground for the neolithic revolution; a science of the *concrete*, where nature is the model for culture because the mind has been nourished and weaned on nature; a *logic* that recognizes soil fertility, the magic of animals, the continuum of mind between species. Successful culture is a semi-permeable membrane between man and nature. We are witnessing North America's post-industrial phase right now, during which human society strives to remain predominant over nature. No mere extrapolation from present to future seems possible. We are in transition from one condition of symbiotic balance — the primitive — to another which we will call the *future primitive* . . . a condition having the attributes of a mature ecosystem: stable, diverse, in symbiotic balance again. . . . If we wish to integrate our cultures with nature we do so at the *level of the ecosystem* which everywhere has a common structure and progression but everywhere varies specifically in composition and function according to time and place" (Gorsline and House, 1974).

for nature conservation in the South Pacific, as elsewhere, will be found to lie in the direction of "Future Primitive". This does not mean the rejection of the best of modern technology, but it does mean the avoidance of the worst. It does mean using the tools and energy that a still available to create something permanent, to create a way of life that can be *sustained*. In such a way of life, nature conservation would necessarily be taken for granted, since people will recognize that their future depends on the health and diversity of the natural world.

Already some of the handwriting is beginning to appear on the wall. The airlines are in serious trouble; the tourist industry is struggling to survive. No future can be built around a national park system that depends on the big jets arriving around the clock and pouring their loads of wealthy Asians and Europeans into the island scene. Unless some miracle fuels are invented soon, the big jets will be increasingly empty and some day they may not come at all. The economies of the technological biosphere society are in a chaotic state — and no two economists can agree about their future direction. Those who live in the Pacific and who have any sense of prudence would be wise to look to their own resources, their own leve of population, and to turn back examine some of the old skills and ways of life that have been left behind. Not too long ago most people in the Pacific were ecosystem people. Now I would propose that the future belongs to those who can regain, at a higher level, the old sense of balance and belonging between man and nature.

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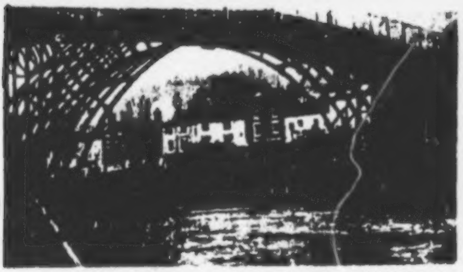
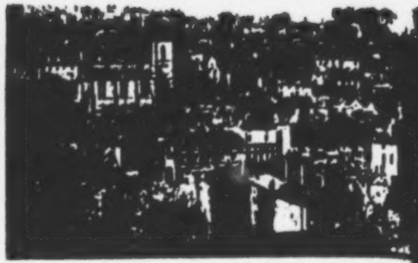
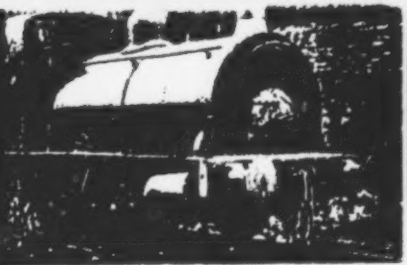
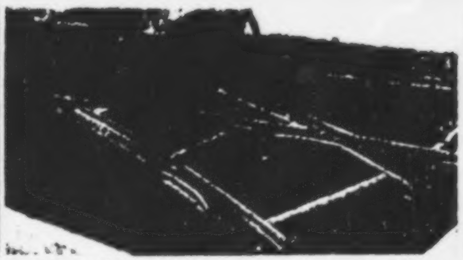

First iron bridge of large size in the world (1777–9).


Town of Ironbridge from the south bank of the Severn

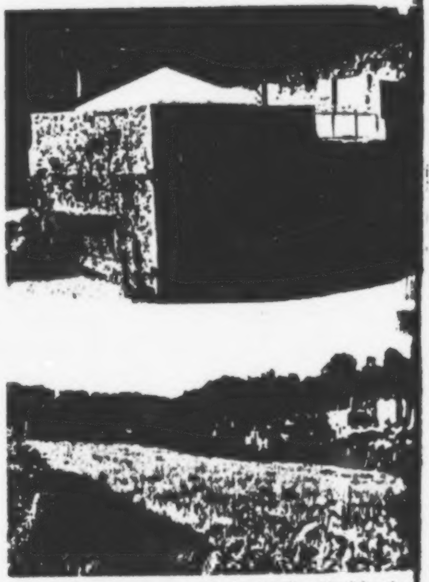

Locomotive made in Coalbrookedale works c. 1850.


Cast-iron rails and truck.

Dawley: preservation and planned change

The site of Dawley new town and the surrounding districts of east Shropshire are rich in relics of the iron industry and can justly claim to be the cradle of the industrial revolution. What shall be preserved and what shall give way to the new development? It is the task of the development corporation to reconcile the competing claims.

ARNOLD WHITTICK


Above: the old furnace; and the Coalbrookedale valley above the old works with some ironmasters' houses

THE new town of Dawley was designated in January 1963, and a master plan was published in January 1965 (reviewed in TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING in March of that year). Also in the summer of 1965, while the master plan for Dawley was being considered by the Minister of Housing and Local Government, the regional study for the West Midlands was published in which it was suggested that a series of projects to take overspill from the Birmingham conurbation should be undertaken, including one at Wellington–Oakengates which should be related to Dawley. Following this the Minister asked John H. D. Madin and Partners, the authors of the master plan for Dawley, to study and define a possible site to take an overspill of 50,000 in the Wellington–Oakengates area and then to prepare a master plan for this combined with that of the new town of Dawley. This has now been produced and a draft designation order was made for the enlarged new town on 2 January 1968. This means an addition of 12,500 acres to the 9,100 acres of Dawley, and an additional intake of 50,000 which would result in something in the order of about 170,000 persons in 21,600 acres in the completed new town.

These deliberations necessarily mean some delay in the actual building of the new town, but the development corporation is anxious to minimize the delay and proceed as quickly as possible with development without waiting for the completion and acceptance of the master plan for the enlarged area. It has, therefore, resolved on a continuity plan for a district in the south, most remote from Wellington and Oakengates, and involving the residential units of Woodside, Madeley, and Halesfield, each with its local centre, but grouped round the larger centre of Madeley. They will provide for a population of about 27,000. Building started early in 1966 and already several hundred houses have been completed.

Cradle of the industrial revolution

One of the problems of new development in areas that have been the scenes of interesting historical events marked by buildings of historical interest is to determine what shall be preserved and what shall give way to the new development in the best national interest. It is a matter of the reconciliation of the claims of preservation and of planned change. There must be something of both, and whatever is decided will generally be the subject of adverse criticism from the adherents of one side or the other.

The southern part of the site at Dawley could justly be claimed to be the cradle of the industrial revolution and it is rich in its early relics, mainly along the north bank of the Severn Gorge from Coalbrookdale in the west to Ironbridge on to Coalport in the east. A furnace for smelting iron-ore with charcoal as fuel was in existence at Coalbrookdale in 1638. In 1708 Abraham Darby came here from Bristol and founded the Coalbrookdale Company, and in the following year began using coke for the smelting of iron-ores, thus leading the way to the rapid expansion in the use of iron for industry. Many of the first uses of iron for various industrial purposes can be found in this area and the surrounding region, including the first metal railway (1767), and the first iron bridge built in 1779, a remarkable structure of 100 feet clear span, the first of several iron bridges in the vicinity. The first cast-iron columns and beams used in building are found mainly in this region. The earliest known example of the two together making an iron frame within the external walls is the calico mill in Derby, built by William Strutt in 1792–3, but this no longer remains. The oldest remaining example is the flax-spinning mill of Benyon, Bage and Marshall built at Shrewsbury in 1796. These buildings are, of course, the precursors of the modern steel frame which has transformed construction and the character of modern architecture.

Cast-iron columns in the "great warehouse" in Coalbrookdale works (1790). *Top right:* artist's impression of original blast furnace.* *Bottom right:* Rose Cottage, Coalbrookdale (1642).

The Coalbrookdale museum

The Coalbrookdale Company still operates on the site employing some 500 workers, becoming in 1929 a member of the Allied Ironfounders group. Part of its premises is devoted to the preservation of many of the early remains of the iron industry including the eighteenth-century furnace, cast-iron columns, beams, and rails, and an old locomotive, while an excellently arranged museum displays a large number of smaller iron objects made during the past 200 years.

A little east of Coalbrookdale near Blists Hill is the sole surviving length of the old Coalport Canal built by Telford with its inclined plane, the longest and steepest of all canal inclines, while a little farther east was the works of Coalport China, one of the oldest and most famous of all English pottery firms and the originator in England of such famous designs as the willow pattern and the Indian tree.

The Severn Gorge from Buildwas to Coalport is of considerable beauty, and the industrial and urban development that took place in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries is now wedded to the landscape, often with quite felicitous results. The urban settlement at Ironbridge is in parts on fairly steeply sloping ground rising from the Severn and includes some very attractive, well-proportioned late Georgian houses that are very pleasingly grouped.

Non-profit preservation trust

Here at Coalbrookdale and Ironbridge there is much of historical ...erest and beauty that should be preserved. It is fortunate that Dawley Development Corporation is fully alive to this and is taking steps to effect such preservation. In February last year it appointed a working party to consider the problems relating to the preservation of industrial remains in Dawley new town and its vicinity. In April an interim report was submitted and in July the final report was published. The working party was asked to consider the possible formation of a preservation trust. This has been done and the working party suggests that the trust should take the form of a non-profit public company with the possible name "The Ironbridge Gorge Museum Trust" and that its main object should be "to secure the preservation, restoration, improvement, enhancement, and maintenance of features and objects of historical, domestic, and industrial interest in the area of Dawley new town and the surrounding districts of east Shropshire". This is followed by an enumeration of the various ways that interest could be fostered.

A centre for industrial archaeology

It will be necessary to obtain funds for the various works of preservation and maintenance and the working party makes suggestions of how they might be obtained. The trust deserves every support. The southern area of Dawley could become a national centre for industrial archaeology in which there is a growing interest both here and in America. It is the logical place. Money spent on preservation and maintenance might prove in the long run to be a good investment as I am sure it would attract an increasing number of American tourists of the student type (of all ages). It is good that Allied Ironfounders should do so much to preserve the valuable relics of the yearly years of the industrial revolution within its domain; and it is good too that the Dawley Development Corporation should take steps to preserve as much as possible of this unique corner of early industrial England.

Thus a principal concern along the southern boundary of the new town of Dawley is with preservation, because of the rich and unique remains of the incipient period of the industrial revolution, while a short distance north round Madeley there is the vigorous building of a new community—an excellent example of preservation and planned change within a new town.

"Hong Kong" fine bone china (1820), formerly made at Coalbrookdale and now made at Stoke-on-Trent.

Photographs in this article by courtesy of Coalport China Ltd, Allied Ironfounders, West Midland Photo Services Ltd, and Wrekin Photo Services.

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* Our resident siderurgist tells us the artist has drawn the plant at the interesting moment when the bosh is open, the furnace is being tapped, and pigs are being cast beside the sow.—Editor

From:

David Lowenthal and Marcus Binney, eds.

Our Past Before Us: Why Do We Save It?

London. Temple Smith, 1981.

CHAPTER 12

Popularity: its Benefits and Risks

ELISABETH BEAZLEY

THE CONCERN of this chapter is the popularity of 'places of heritage' in the United Kingdom; conditions overseas can be very different. Here the pattern of towns and the countryside which we most cherish tends to be small both in size and in scale. We also have a large mobile population which is increasingly being encouraged to visit such places. Many of us are now horrified by the overwhelming numbers who come to some of our monuments, historic houses and those parts of the country known as beauty spots. At the same time yet more visitors are encouraged.

Why this contradiction? Gate money might be the quick answer but it is one that needs scrutiny. Can we afford to encourage visitors? Can we afford to keep them away?

In many cases the very survival of a 'place of heritage' may now depend on tourism. Marcus Binney and Max Hanna point out in *Preservation Pays* (1978) that 'Britain's historic buildings, quite apart from their intrinsic value and beauty, are a major economic resource and an irreplaceable capital asset, contributing significantly through tourism to earnings of foreign exchange, to local employment and prosperity, and to central government taxation'. The same might well be said of Britain's landscape, agricultural, woodland, or wild.

Economics lie at the root of that common misconception which has made the popularity of a place the yardstick against which to gauge its success. How else can success be measured? But from the point of view of the survival of the place itself and of the experience of those who come to visit it, popularity may spell disaster.

Conservation of atmosphere is clearly as important as that of fabric. Popularity militates against both; it is indeed a mixed blessing. Places once intended for enjoyment of a few for part of the time are now all too often expected to absorb large crowds most of the time. This is as true of big spaces as of small. The Epping Forest Centenary Appeal of 1978 says: 'The tide of traffic brings people in such numbers all the year round as to put at risk the very place

It is as essential not to wreck tranquillity as it is to prevent carpets becoming threadbare or grass becoming brown mud. There is a grave danger of killing the goose that lays the golden egg. Worse, we kill the thing we most treasure. Success in terms of visitor numbers can do this with shattering ease; yet gate-money is thought to be vital to survival. to survival.

It is our job as conservationists to recognize the ingredients of this dilemma and our job as planners to get the mix right.

The first assumption which must be challenged is that a visit to 'a place of heritage', be it a stately home, cathedral, castle, garden or lonely mountain or stretch of coast is an experience that all right-minded people enjoy or should be encouraged to enjoy. Because we greatly enjoy such things ourselves, we tend to imagine that others would share our enthusiasms given the chance. (There is a similarity here to that other cherished English belief: nice people like cricket, dogs and gardening. Though many do, others, equally charming, civilized and intelligent, do not.)

So we set out to attract more and more visitors, often as much in a spirit of evangelism as for financial gain. Our anxiety to increase the general interest can result in an urge to make everything accessible both physically and in terms of information. This includes the didactic attempt to 'interpret' everything, to 'bring out its meaning' for the good of others (and, perhaps, often because 'interpretation' itself is such an enjoyable exercise). Then everything tends to be 'on show', nothing is left to speak for itself or to chance discovery; the whole country becomes an exhibition.

Visitor numbers may rise, though probably not spectacularly; atmosphere, however, is irrevocably eroded.

This is not to decry all interpretation. That would be absurd: it is necessary only to look around to see the excellent work that has been done (from a parish church to the Ironbridge Gorge Museum). But quality in siting and type of medium (guide, guidebook, exhibition) are all important. It is 'unjustified to turn a wilderness into a circus for the sake of the doubtful benefit of education or of entertainment', points out Colin Tubbs in the Society for the Interpretation of Britain's Heritage *News Letter* (Autumn 1976). The same might be said of buildings or gardens. We are also warned against 'platitudes, misleading generalisations and an avoidance of real issues. Often the interpreter was talking to the converted and the spoon-feeding of the public could create a generation who found the countryside only on a nature trail.' Or a garden, on a horticultural walk.

Have we, the visitors, changed during the last thirty years? Yes, it seems we have. Around 1950, most of those visiting a country house did so because of their interest in country houses, just as the majority of those now attending, say, a golf tournament or a motor race are there because of their interest in golf or racing cars. Now perhaps 80 per cent of those visiting a country house on a sunny Sunday are doing so for the fun of a day out.

Why not? A parallel instance is the not unusual practice of sitting in the car in the country to read the Sunday paper. This is an eminently sensible place to enjoy the newspaper if you happen to be blessed with a comfortable motor-car but lack a comfortable fireside or a sunny garden. It too is part of the day out. In the same sort of way to the family visiting the country house, tea matters. It always has done. But sheer numbers mean a tea-shop rather than cucumber sandwiches on the lawn with the owner (and, of course, an unparalleled parking problem).

Several millions of us want and need this day out in the country – whence the introduction of Country Parks under the Countryside Act. However, we, the public, quite naturally confuse the use we make of the place we visit. No clear-cut decision is taken as to *whether we go there to enjoy ourselves in pleasant surroundings or to enjoy the place itself.* Most of us want a bit of both; perhaps much less of the latter than may be generally suspected.

Part of the answer to the hideous dilemma of popularity lies in distinguishing between the sociable and the solitary places. There are still many fine stretches of coastline and remote valleys where half a dozen people make a crowd. Conversely, the summit of Snowdon can be really rather jolly with sightseers on every pinnacle, like a craggy race meeting (but even here we aggravate a conservation problem which dates back, perhaps, to the late eighteenth century).

Less generally recognized is the idea of segregating the sociable and solitary places within a site: not a new idea, but one which perhaps needs to be practised more in our small-scale country. Owners who have recognized the need for, and the fun of, the 'day out' have provided for it with great success, but this often seems to have been done with the sole intention of increasing the gate-money: there has been little attempt to use it as a planning tool to mitigate the erosion of either the fabric or the atmosphere. As a result, increasing numbers of visitors further undermine both their own enjoyment and the place they have come to enjoy.

The 'jewel' (house, garden, church, castle, cliff) should be considered in its broadest setting. Access to it should be limited so as to keep the numbers to a tolerable level. The siting of car parks is all-important in this respect. At the same time, there should be plenty of other things to do in addition to enjoying the focal point; these will also allow for timed tickets to the focal point. People may be happy to pay gate-money to return again and again without wishing to re-visit 'the main attraction', particularly in the case of houses set within big parks.

Careful analysis of what the place has to offer and a clear distinction between its unique (and often vulnerable) foci and other parts which may be designed to offer the enjoyment of 'a day out' can go a long way towards a solution if the results of such an analysis are integrated in a plan to deflect pressure.

Indeed, there are places where it might be wiser to put capital into a money-making counter-attraction at some distance from the site, than to lure more visitors to hasten its destruction. If a monument, say, is felt to have 'enough' visitors, a car-park a mile or so away might offer a first-rate, scholarly-based interpretative centre, and perhaps a skate-board rink, a tree-top assault course, a swimming-pool or some such attraction. The distance would filter the 'day-outers' from the 'site-seers' to the advantage of both. For the former, a distant view of the monument, or even the knowledge of its existence, may be enough – such knowledge gives us all a sense of continuity and of security. During a discussion some years ago about national parks and wilderness areas, a member of the US Congress was challenged as to whether he had ever been to the place in question. He said he had not, but to *know that it was there* was what mattered to him.

So we must resist the temptation to encourage as many visitors as possible, willy-nilly; it is essential to be selective. Incidentally, a regular event, enjoyed locally and thus integrated with, although not actually staged at, the place in question, can both serve as a non-eroding fund-raiser and increase consciousness of that place. The church fête provides a traditional example.

The Dean and Chapter of Lincoln Cathedral have followed such an argument to its logical conclusion. A committee representing them runs a local motor-cycling race track meeting once a year, from which all profits are donated to the cathedral funds. The Dean and Chapter themselves own a motor-cycle which races under cathedral colours – but not, as yet, with the Dean in the saddle.

This chapter has dwelt much more on the risks of popularity than on its benefits because the benefits are evident. But they must not be forgotten, and they are not only financial. Some places are immensely enjoyable in the excitement of a crowd. A cathedral brimming with people who are not there primarily to sightsee (a medieval pilgrimage must have been tremendous fun, although hardly peaceful); a pipe-band drawing crowds to a great courtyard: Beating Retreat in a castle bailey; horsey events and regattas – all can transform a 'place of heritage' enjoyably – perhaps because we, as visitors, identify ourselves with our fellow spectators in seeing it as a backdrop to a spectacle. What few of us want are queues and crowds in what was intended to be a peaceful setting.

Planning for the beneficial reception of large numbers lies in care over many seemingly humble details. These include:

1. *Means of access and location of entrances*, in relation both to the public roads and to the site itself. A site cannot be opened until these problems are satisfactorily resolved with the Highway Authority.

2. *The siting of car and coach parks.* While minimizing visual intrusion, this is perhaps the most important single factor in any plan since it decides which parts are to be most crowded and most accessible within a site.

3. *Payment by visitors*. Where and for what? This is integral with visitor management. With (4) below it can allow for timed tickets to the focal point of the site.

4. *Provision and siting of alternative magnets* to the focal point, whether educational (an exhibition), energy-consuming (an adventure playground), or just a sunny, sheltered place to picnic not far from a car park.

5. *Extension of opening hours and seasons.* This does little to spread the visitor load at peak times, but it gives the more solitary-minded a chance. Such extensions must take into account that the fabric, particularly that of historic houses, needs a periodic rest, and that maintenance, including housework, must be carried on. We must also realize that it is at times necessary to 'shut the gate' from the point of view of both the visitor and the property, when the place is full enough.

6. *The visual results of capital grants.* Because capital is forthcoming

18 The sanitized past: Department of the Environment greensward at an English ancient monument

19 The past left to itself: Thomas Gray's churchyard, Stoke Poges, Buckinghamshire

for new projects but not for maintenance, things are often 'overdone' – e.g., macadamized surfaces of car parks when grass or chippings would answer. This reversal of traditional country-estate practice is insidiously transforming much of rural Britain.

7. *A moderation of the democratic urge*, which now operates to the detriment of both place and visitor. Not everybody can enjoy everything all the time. People should sometimes be able to pay more to enjoy a comparatively solitary visit, as for example on 'connoisseurs' days'. But such privileges must be limited lest they exclude those who cannot afford them. A system of advance booking, with a limited number of tickets available on the day, as practised by the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, might be introduced for popular monuments and houses.

8. *Schools' and children's visits.* Much has been done in this respect (the National Trust's Youth Theatre is a fascinating, although expensive, example), but many youngsters' visits are still a disaster – so boring to the child as to put him off for life, and so disruptive to the general public as to stretch their affection for the young to breaking point. Education has a vital part to play in showing that such places can add imeasurably to the enjoyment of life. Site management should take advantage of the fact that schools' visits come at a different time of year from the main visitor onslaught.

9. *Encouragement of local interest in local places out of season.* We tend not to visit locally, but the cost of petrol could focus interest nearer home. Unemployment may also affect this in several ways (more time, less money).

10. *The use of the media*, particularly TV, to increase understanding and enhance enjoyment. The media must be used with great discretion, however, for visitor numbers soar after almost any TV programme about a place; the popularity can be ruinous as well as lucrative.

11. *The provision of visitor services.* A well-designed and sited shop and a simple restaurant can greatly add to enjoyment and income. Such provision usually increases visitor numbers.

12. *Allowing the visitor to discover things for himself*, or appear to do so. But this, too, may need to be planned: e.g., the principal visitor route might be diverted to avoid a particularly attractive or 'secret' part of an estate.

13. *Allowing a place to remain itself.* Leave the unfashionable alone, and avoid gimmicks.

Each place is unique; that is its greatest asset. It seems to me that the gravest risk we run in managing 'places of heritage' is unconsciously ironing out their differences in a misguided attempt to help the visitor. The same lettering on everyone's signs, however well designed; the same goods in the shops, however good the taste; the same picnic table.... Uniqueness is also undermined by too much well-meant information. The stimulation of exploring the unknown is foregone if the visitor is deprived of all sense of bewilderment and wonder, or the possibility of losing himself even temporarily.

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Source: Heritage Canada. Spring, 1976

■ What's Canada's top tourist attraction?

□ Fishing. Definitely fishing. All those trout, mackerel, silvery lakes . . .

■ Nope.

□ Nope? Hmmm . . . Action sports? Skiing? Hunting? Boating? The feel of the . . .

■ No.

□ Spectator Sports, then? Football? Hockey? Johnny Rodgers, Bobby Hull . . .

■ No.

□ Hmmm . . . Cultural events? Ballet? Festivals? The Musical Ride?

■ No.

□ I give up.

HERITAGE AND TOURISM

by George Galt

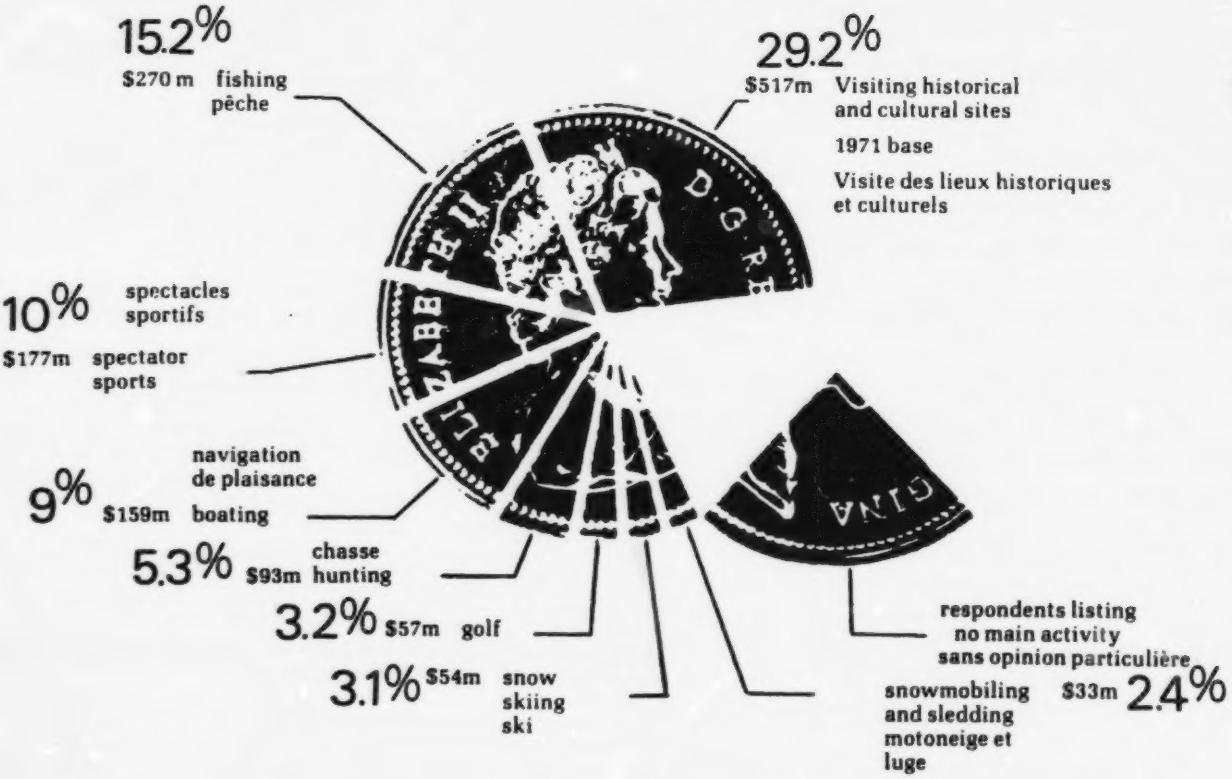
According to research sponsored by the American Behaviour Science Corporation, the strongest motive for family pleasure travel is the anticipated educational benefit to children. This finding has been born out by a number of independent tourist surveys. One western Canadian city found that 23% of its visitors ranked the local museum as the highlight of their trip. *13% said they enjoyed the city's buildings more than anything.* A recent tourist study in Nova Scotia found that fully one third of all pleasure travellers visited provincial museums and historic or cultural buildings. Other North American surveys have established that, after family visiting, sightseeing is the prime purpose for travel, be it by plane, train or automobile. One hardly need add that any historic site or building is a sightseeing draw, and that the better developed these heritage resources are, the more prosperous will be the local tourist industry.

More concrete evidence of the importance of heritage as a tourist attraction is provided by the most recent Canadian Travel Survey, conducted in 1971. According to this study, 29% of Canadian tourist spending is attributable to tourists whose main activity is visiting historical and cultural sites. *This is by far the highest of the nine specific categories listed in the survey.* Fishing, for example, the next most popular activity and one often touted as the great Canadian holiday activity, was found to account for only 15.2% of tourist dollars.

Other comparisons speak more emphatically. The sum of fishing and boating dollars together still represents less than the amount spent in the heritage category. And if we combine the all-Canadian leisure pastimes of boating, hunting, snow skiing and sports watching, we find that even they account for less spending (27.4% of the total) than do historical and cultural visits. (It must be added that a rather high proportion of respondents in this survey (22.4%) listed no main activity. A reasonable assumption would be that this unidentified group mirrors the sample as a whole, and that therefore all the categories should be inflated proportionately.)

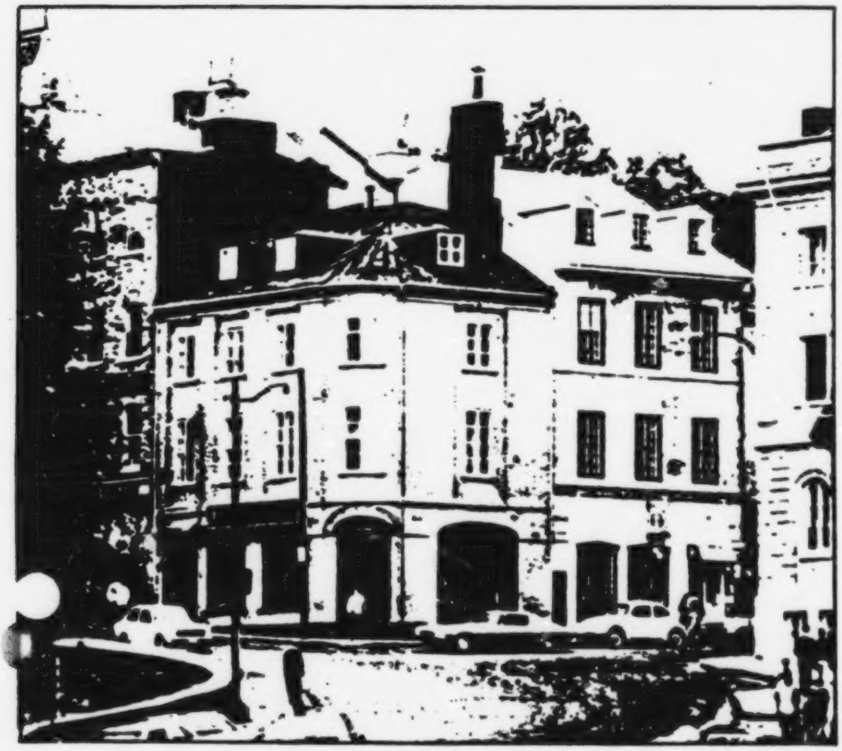
Such a trenchant statistical argument should put to rest any lingering suspicions we might have as to the general popularity of preservation and restoration. While it may be true that comparatively few people are heritage activists, the survey provides strong testimony in favour of Canadians as cultural and historical enthusiasts. Heritage projects, we can now say for certain, repay their communities handsomely.

There is a question prompted by this survey, one which is important and not fully answerable without further research. Why does historical and cultural spending rank proportionately much higher in some areas than in others?


15.2%
$270 m fishing
pêche
29.2%
$517m Visiting historical and cultural sites
1971 base
Visite des lieux historiques et culturels
10% spectacles sportifs
$177m spectator sports
navigation de plaisance
9% $159m boating
5.3% $93m chasse hunting
3.2% $57m golf
3.1% $54m snow skiing ski
snowmobiling and sledding motoneige et luge
respondents listing no main activity sans opinion particulière
$33m 2.4%

EXPENDITURES OF CANADIAN TOURISTS ACCORDING TO THEIR MAIN ACTIVITY
DEPENSES DES TOURISTES SELON LEUR ACTIVITE PRINCIPALE

In Savannah, Georgia, tourist revenues soared to $40 million a year after restoration.
A Savannah, en Georgie, les recettes touristiques ont atteint $40 millions année après la restauration.



e Quebec City area derives 35.6% of its Canadian tourist dollars from istorical and cultural visits.
La région de la ville de Québec retire 35.6% de ses recettes touristiques des Canadiens qui visitent les sites historiques et culturels.

Sometimes this is easily explained, other times not. The Quebec City area for example, derives 35.6% of its Canadian tourist dollars from historical and cultural visits. That this proportion is well above the average is obviously a result of the city's concentration of cultural and heritage related attractions. And one might interpret the low 15% score of Quebec's eastern townships as a reflection of the area's image as an outdoor playground favoured for its woods, lakes and moutains.

But what of other areas? Why, we might ask, does southwestern Ontario (exclusive of Toronto), one of Canada's original pioneer tracts, derive only 23.4% of its tourist income from cultural and historical visits when New Brunswick, a province with a wealth of competing tourist attractions, reaches almost 40%? Has the heritage potential of the first region been fully tapped? History tells us that the heritage resources are there. Does the survey indicate that they have not been adequately developed?

"UNE RECENTE ETUDE TOURISTIQUE A REVELE QU'UN BON TIERS DE TOUS LES VOYAGEURS D'AGREMENT ONT VISITE LES MUSEES ET LES IMMEUBLES HISTORIQUES OU CULTURELS DE LA PROVINCE. D'AUTRES ENQUETES EN AMERIQUE DU NORD ONT ETABLI QU'APRES LES VOYAGES DE FAMILLE, LA VISITE DES SITES EST LE PRINCIPAL BUT DU VOYAGE, QUE CE SOIT PAR AVION, PAR TRAIN OU PAR AUTOMOBILE."

Such a question is best answered by the individual community, whether in southwestern Ontario or elsewhere, but it is well worth posing. Perhaps only when we have begun to view old buildings as a major part of the stock-in-trade of the tourist industry will we be able to answer it fairly.

While the above figures are based on cultural and historical visits as a tourist's main activity, the total economic benefits generated by heritage attractions extend well beyond this measured impact. Even where the enjoyment of historic sites and streetscapes is peripheral to the main purpose of a trip, it will still act as an additional draw, encouraging the traveler to stay longer and spend more. All these monies have an appreciable effect on the local economy. Rough estimates of the spin-off effect of tourist dollars are usually made with multipliers ranging from about 1.5 to 2.5. Thus, $100,000 injected into a local economy in the tourist season can mean a total of between $150,000 and $250,000 in related sales, wages and taxes.

It might be argued that heritage sites and areas cannot be developed, that they either exist as attractive leftovers from the past, or not. But the experience of many cities argues otherwise. What may appear as a slum, a derelict area of dilapidated buildings one remove from the central business district, may be a hidden heritage asset which needs only some imaginative rethinking as to use, a measure of political support from the municipality, and an investment in conversion to modern space dimensions and heating and lighting arrangements.

One of the first North American cities to rediscover its heritage buildings, for example, was New Orleans, and there the tourist impact has been staggering. Current annual tourist revenues generated by the Vieux Carré, the city's historic French quarter, are estimated at well over $200 million, and have been growing steadily in recent years. Similar lucrative restoration ventures abound in the United States, but particularly notable have been the efforts made in Savannah, Georgia. The Historic Savannah Foundation grew spontaneously from a grassroots heritage organization formed in 1955, and has now restored 900 of the 1100 historic buildings originally surveyed. Tourist revenues, which measured $10 million a year before restoration work began, soared to $40 million after just six years of organized reclamation.

> **“BIEN QU'IL PUISSE ETRE VRAI QUE COMPARATIVEMENT PEU DE GENS S'INTERESSENT AU PATRIMOINE NATIONAL, CETTE ENQUETE FOURNIT UNE PREUVE ECLATANTE QUE LES CANADIENS SONT ENTHOUSIASTES POUR LES ACTIVITES CULTURELLES ET HISTORIQUES. NOUS POUVONS DONC DECLARER AVEC CERTITUDE QUE TOUS LES PROJETS SE RATTACHANT AU PATRIMOINE NATIONAL SONT EXTREMEMENT RENTABLES.”**

Of course, every city and town cannot boast the long and colourful histories of New Orleans and Savannah. But every city has a past, usually represented by a few streets of older architecture in the wings of its downtown. Many lack only recognition and promotion. And many are better situated than a city like New Orleans which is not on any natural tourist trail and has had to draw its own special publi[illegible]

Towns and cities on or near regular travel paths have their tourist bases ready-made and available. To them the incentives for dusting off the local heritage assets should look irresistable. ♔

Over 33% of travellers to Halifax visited museums and historic buildings.
Un bon tiers de tous les voyageurs qui se rendent à Halifax ont visité les immeubles historiques.

Once a slum, Vancouver's now-renovated Gastown is a top money-ma' tourist attraction.
Autrefois un secteur de taudis, le quartier Gastown de Vancouver récemment rénové est une des attractions touristiques les plus payantes.

PROTECTED LANDSCAPES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Paper by Adrian Phillips
(Director, Countryside Commission)
for the International Symposium on
Protected Landscapes

5-10 October 1987

SUMMARY

This paper deals with protected landscapes in the United Kingdom. It should be read in conjunction with that by the Director General of the Nature Conservancy Council, which explores the relationship between nature conservation and landscape protection in the UK, and that by the National Park Officer on the Lake District National Park.

The paper is in three parts:

Part I gives a brief background to landscape protection in the UK.

Part II is descriptive. It describes the system, dealing with legislation and power, the categories of protected landscapes, and the role of key responsible agencies(1). This part of the present paper should also be read in conjunction with Protected Landscapes: The United Kingdom Experience, by Judy and Duncan Poore, prepared for the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes, which describes the individual protected landscapes in greater detail.

Part III is analytical. It considers the relevance of the UK experience to the four themes of the Symposium: conservation and development, working with people, mechanisms, and international opportunities. This part deals critically with the strengths and shortcomings of the UK system, and seeks to draw out lessons of potential international significance.

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(1) Much of the text is a update of a paper prepared for the World Congress on National Parks, Bali, Indonesia 1982 - see National Parks, Conservation and Development, edited by McNeely, Jeffrey A; and Miller, Kenton R; (and in particular pages 426-437: Protected Areas in the United Kingdom: the Selection, Establishment and Management of Natural and Scenic Protected Areas in a Densely Populated Country with Limited Choices: by Foster, John; Phillips, Adrian and Steele, Richard) IUCN 1984

I. BACKGROUND TO THE UK EXPERIENCE

The contribution which the United Kingdom offers to the International Symposium on Protected Landscapes is experience borne out of an unusually long concern with the subject. This is because the protection of landscape has had to be a special focus of our conservation efforts.

It is easy to see why. The United Kingdom, with an average population density of 230 persons per square kilometre, is amongst the most densely populated countries in the world; England, in particular, ranks near the top of the international league (although Scotland comes far further down). Most of the natural fauna and flora of these islands was modified by man thousands of years ago, and several species of large mammals eradicated. As very little of the land surface of Britain is unaltered - apart from some of the highest mountains and some sea cliffs and foreshores - truly natural environment is hard to find. Thus the English, the Welsh and the Northern Irish lost the opportunity to create national parks on the US model hundreds of years before Yellowstone was created; and, even in the wildest parts of Scotland, the establishment of such parks today would be difficult.

The natural heritage for the British people is not, therefore, one of great wilderness areas inhabited by large mammals but of natural environments modified by man. And it is these environments, constituting the landscape of the countryside, which the British have long been concerned to protect.

"Landscape" in this connection means the "geological structure of the land, its soils, animals and its vegetation, and the patterns of human activity - fields, forests, settlements and local industries - both past and present. It is a matter not only of beauty, of aesthetic appreciation of nature and architecture, but an expression of the whole ecology of an area and the history of its occupation and use by people." It is therefore a very broad concept, and references throughout this paper to landscapes should be read in that way. Certainly it is much more than scenery, though this is certainly an important element.

Five concerns come together in the protection of landscapes in the United Kingdom:

1. A concern for nature. The most highly valued landscapes often represent a particularly harmonious balance between man and nature. Though the natural environment has been modified in such areas, its natural qualities have not been destroyed. Indeed the survival of rich habitats often depends upon man's continued intervention; for example, the floristically most interesting limestone grasslands are those which are regularly grazed by sheep. In the United Kingdom the conservation of species and habitats, provision of public access to nature and opportunities for escape from urban areas to a (relative) wilderness are met through the protection of landscapes which usually bear the imprint of man's past habitation, farming and industry.

2. Cultural and historic associations. The villages, churches, country houses, farms and fields of such humanised landscapes record the efforts of past generations to earn a living from the land and indeed the development of a whole rural way of life. This appeal to cultural roots, and to the past, is perhaps all the more powerful for the British because they are such a highly urbanised society: some 80% of people living in towns of over 10,000 population and less than 3% engaged directly in agriculture. The countryside, and the landscapes it contains, are a source of strong romantic attachment to those who feel they have lost all other links to the land.

3. Aesthetics and art. This attachment is reflected in the British school of landscape painting, and in English poetry and other literature, which owe much to the inspiration that has come from the landscapes of the countryside. Painters like Constable and poets like Wordsworth have sought to understand the landscape and to interpret its significance for a broader audience. They have enabled millions to share in their celebration of its beauties - a particularly British contribution to the arts.

4. Access and recreation. Since the rural landscape is so important to the British, it is not surprising that there should be a widely-held view that the countryside should be accessible, so that it can be enjoyed to the full. This demand for access runs alongside the British concern for conservation of the landscape. The right of access to open country, that is to mountains, heather moorland, waterside, woods and so on, and to use footpaths and bridleways across farmland, are - in a British context - conservation issues as well as recreational ones. This has helped to give the UK particular experience in the management of landscapes under visitor pressure from visitors.

5. Economic reasons. Latterly, the importance of the landscape as a base for tourism has become better understood and more widely acknowledged. Tourism is the fastest growing industry in Britain. Much of this activity is based upon the attractions of the British landscape, which exert an appeal to the native population of these islands and internationally.

Thus a concern for the rural landscape - and for its protection - is a central part of the British experience in conservation. It explains why there has been ready acceptance by the public, and all political parties, of a comprehensive system of land use planning, which is more regulatory than one might expect in a free-market economy; as well as particular legislation and other measures to give special protection to certain parts of the countryside where the landscape is of the highest quality. It also explains why there are so many official and voluntary bodies concerned in various ways with landscape conservation.

II A DESCRIPTION OF THE SYSTEM OF PROTECTED LANDCAPES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Legislation and Powers

The origins of present day legislation for landscape protection can be traced to developments in the last century. The rapid urbanisation of Britain, the first country to enter the industrial era, had a major impact on the landscape and created a sense of alarm amongst those who valued its qualities. Wordsworth campaigned for the protection of the Lake District from railways in the 1840s. By the end of the century, the National Trust - which acquires fine landscape and historic buildings for their protection and public enjoyment - had come into being. Though voluntary bodies, acting as pressure groups, argued for the creation of "national parks" in the 1920s and 1930s, progress was slow until the war-time plans for post-war reconstruction gave a spur to thinking and action. As a direct result, several major pieces of legislation were enacted by the post-war government which still provide much of the framework for the protection of landscapes in the United Kingdom today.

In 1947, a comprehensive system of town and country planning was introduced which, through establishment of positive policies for land use and the control of development, helps protect the countryside from urban sprawl and scattered development. In 1949, the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act was passed, which established the National Parks Commission with responsibilties in England and Wales for designating national parks and areas of outstanding natural beauty. The Countryside Act of 1968 replaced the National Parks Commission with the Countryside Commission, with landscape protection responsibilities towards the countryside of England and Wales as a whole. In 1974, legislation was enacted to strengthen the administration of national parks. Several laws passed in recent years have strengthened landscape conservation powers further, especially in national parks and in respect of agriculture and forestry activities which, by and large, are not covered by the town and country planning legislation.

In Scotland, to which the national parks provisions of the Act of 1949 had not applied, the Countryside (Scotland) Act of 1967 established the Countryside Commission for Scotland, with landscape protection responsibilities over the whole of the Scottish countryside. As in England and Wales, recent legislation has strengthened the place of conservation in farming and forestry policy and practice.

Responsibility for policies for landscape and conservation in Northern Ireland rests with the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland, originally under the Amenity Lands Act of 1965, and currently under the Access to the Countryside (NI) Order 1983 and the Nature Conservation and Amenity Land (NI) Order 1985. In exercising this responsibility, the Department is advised by the Ulster Countryside Committee, and the place of conservation in farming and forestry has been strengthened both by this legislation and inter-departmental co-operation.

In parallel with the designation of different categories of protected landscapes (more fully described in Part III of this paper), and the establishment of national agencies responsible for landscape conservation (also see below), various powers have been introduced which help conserve and manage landscapes. The most important of these powers are those:

- to control new development and uses of land under the of town and country planning legislation (by local authorities)
- to acquire or lease land, and manage it for landscape conservation (by local authorities)
- to undertake conservation measures, eg to restore derelict land, plant trees, provide countryside ranger services (principally by local authorities)
- to make management agreements with private landowners to conserve landscape features of value (by the Countryside Commission for Scotland and local authorities; special powers and resources are available to the national park authorities in England and Wales - see below - for this work)
- to give exemption from capital transfer tax to owners of land of outstanding landscape interest in return for undertakings to manage the land so as to retain its conservation value (by the Treasury on the advice of the Countryside Commissions)
- to acquire, by private treaty sale, land of outstanding landscape interest at lower prices which take account of the vendor's tax liabilities (by local authorities, the National Trusts and others)
- to receive land (normally of outstanding landscape interest) accepted by the Treasury in lieu of tax (the National Trusts, local authorities and charitable organisations such as local conservation trusts)
- to make payments to farmers in designated environmentally sensitive areas (see below) to continue to farm in the traditional manner in order to protect the environment (the Ministry of Agriculture, and equivalent agricultural departments in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, on the advice - in Britain - of the Countryside Commissions and the Nature Conservancy Council, and in Northern Ireland of the Department of the Environment).

Where undertaken by local authorities, including national park authorities, some of these conservation activities can be supported by grants from the Government or the Countryside Commissions. In addition, the Countryside Commissions have powers to grant aid voluntary bodies to acquire and manage land for landscape conservation purposes. The National Heritage Memorial Fund is empowered to make financial contributions towards the acquisition of land of outstanding landscape conservation value. In Northern Ireland, the functions of the Countryside Commissions, the Nature Conservancy Council and planning rest with the Department of the Environment, as do some other functions which are carried out by local government elsewhere.

Categories of Protected Landscapes in the United Kingdom (for a fuller account, see Protected Landscapes: The United Kingdom Experience, by Judy and Duncan Poore)

The term 'Protected Landscapes' is used here to include both those designations which would indisputably fall within IUCN Category V, and several others which enjoy a degree of protection but which do not figure in the IUCN Provisional List of Protected Landscapes (annexed to the pre-symposium paper: Protected Landscapes, Facts and Figures) because they do not entirely measure up to the required standards. Several kinds of protected landscapes are to be found in the various parts of the United Kingdom as shown in Table 1 and described in the ensuing text.

Table 1 Protected Landscape Categories in the Countries of the United Kingdom

England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
National Parks* The Broads* The New Forest*	National scenic areas	Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty
Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty		
Heritage Coasts*		
Environmentally Sensitive Areas		

*These areas are in IUCN's Provisional list of Protected Landscapes

England and Wales

Under the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949, the Countryside Commission (until 1968 the National Parks Commission) designates national parks and areas of outstanding natural beauty, subject to confirmation by the appropriate Secretary of State. The Countryside Commission also defines a third category of protected landscape, heritage coasts, in consultation with the local planning authorities. The responsibility for designating environmentally sensitive areas lies with the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food (MAFF) and the Welsh Office Agricultural Department (WOAD) on the joint advice of the Countryside Commission and the Nature Conservancy Council.

The ten existing National Parks (seven in England and three in Wales) are extensive areas designated between 1950 and 1955 for their natural beauty and potential for open air recreation. They do not correspond to national parks in the sense of IUCN Category II, but rather to Category V (Protected Landscape) and to Category C of the Council of Europe classification (one of the national parks, the Peak District, has held the European Diploma of the Council of Europe for many years). They cover 13,600 km - over 9% of the area of England and Wales - and have a combined resident population of 237,000.

All but one of the parks are mainly in upland areas, covering the finest moor and mountain scenery; the exception is predominantly an area of fine coastline in Wales. While further areas may be designated, there are no firm plans to this end at present (but see comments below on the Broads and the New Forest).

The parks are administered by national park authorities, ie special boards or committees of local government, one third of whose members are appointed by the Secretaries of State for the Environment, or for Wales, after consultation with the Commission. Since 1974, each park has had its own national park officer (appointed in consultation with the Countryside Commission) and administrative, technical and field staff - the total number of permanent staff employed in all the parks being nearly 700. Each park authority is responsible for day-to-day control of development and follows stringent policies to protect the quality of the landscape; each also provides management services (eg rangers and interpretive staff) along lines set out in its national park plan, which must be reviewed by the Commission before it is adopted. This year, total annual expenditure by all the park authorities is expected to be about £17 million. 75% of net expenditure is met by central government in the form of an annual grant against an approved programme, based on the advice of the Commission.

The parks contain small towns, villages, small industries, working farms and many other economic activities. Indeed the appeal of much of the landscape of the parks lies in the harmonious way in which villages, farms and woodlands fit into the scene. The national park authorities are required to have 'due regard' to the social and economic needs of the local communities, and to farming and forestry; maintaining the balance between these considerations and their conservation and recreation duties is a major and continuing challenge for them.

While designation of the parks does not affect land ownership, some areas which are particularly beautiful and popular with visitors may be acquired by the national park authority. More often, however, it is voluntary bodies, such as the National Trust, which acquire land in the parks for conservation and public enjoyment, often with grants from the Countryside Commission. The role of the Commission is otherwise advisory and on occasion it may assist a park authority in resisting damaging development proposals.

In addition to the ten national parks themselves, there are two other areas whose importance for landscape and recreation makes them - the Commission believes - of national park quality. The Broads, in eastern England, is a complex of slow-moving rivers and shallow man-made lakes. Legislation is being enacted to set up a permanent Broads Authority, to be funded three-quarters by the Government, which will have similar powers to those of national parks, but including also powers and responsibilities for the management of navigation and water space. The New Forest, in southern England, contains extensive tracts of largely undisturbed forest, heath and bog ecosystems. Much of the forest is managed by the Forestry Commission on behalf of the Crown on strict conservation principles and to accommodate the large numbers of visitors which the area attracts.

There are 36 **Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONBs)**, and two more whose designation awaits Ministerial confirmation. Several more may be designated in future. Most are relatively extensive and all are selected for their landscape beauty and designated with the purpose of protecting those qualities. Together the 36 AONBs cover over 17,000 sq km, or 11.3% of the area of England and Wales, and include a variety of landscapes such as hills, moorlands, forests, river valleys, lowland heaths, chalk downlands, coastal scenery and islands. As with national parks, designation does not affect ownership; unlike national parks, however, designation of AONBs does not imply a specific programme for recreation. However, some AONBs contain extensive areas of land in public or voluntary protective ownership.

AONBs are designated by the Countryside Commission (subject to Ministerial confirmation), which has similar advisory responsibilities towards them as towards national parks. However, in other respects arrangements to secure the national interests in their planning and management are much more limited, and responsibility for AONBs rests largely with the local authorities concerned. The emphasis in AONBs is on protection from damaging forms of development, but increasing attention is being given by some local authorities to their positive management.

The 39 **Heritage Coasts** have been defined by the Countryside Commission and the local authorities along 1370 kms of the finest coasts of England and Wales - over 31% of the whole coastline. Most heritage coasts coincide with established national parks and AONBs. Besides reinforcing protection, heritage coast definition implies intensive management for conservation (and recreation), for example through ranger and interpretive services. The landward depth of heritage coasts rarely exceeds one kilometre. Definition does not affect ownership. A few further heritage coasts may be defined.

There are five **Environmentally Sensitive Areas** (ESAs) so far designated in England and one in Wales. ESAs are designated by MAFF or the Welsh office Agricultural Department (WOAD) on the advice of the Countryside Commission and the Nature Conservancy Council, and give effect to Article 19 of the European Economic Community's Structures Regulation no 797/85. In ESAs farmers are offered special financial assistance by MAFF and WOAD - amounting to £6m per annum - to encourage them to contiue to farm in traditional ways which are considered to be environmentally beneficial. Some 1800 sq kms (1% of England and Wales) are so far designated, some in national parks or AONBs, and MAFF and WOAD have announced that a further six ESAs will soon be added to the list in England and Wales and others extended.

Scotland

The powers contained in the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949 to establish national parks did not extend to Scotland, even though Scotland contains more substantial areas of relatively remote country and coastline than elsewhere in the UK.

However, **National Scenic Areas**, of which there are 40, covering 10,173 sq km - 12.9% of the area of Scotland - have been defined by the Countryside Commission for Scotland and subsequently formally designated by the Secretary of State for Scotland. These have been selected on different and - in scenic terms - a more selective basis than applies to national parks and AONBs in England and Wales. Since 1981 planning authorities have had to refer planning applications for certain classes of development within these areas to the Commission to secure the national element of interest. No other arrangements for the national interest exist within them, but local authorities are expected to reflect the scenic importance of the areas in their planning and management strategies. Definition does not affect ownership nor imply a specific programme for recreational provision.

There are also two ESAs in Scotland, set up on the advice of the Countryside Commission for Scotland and the Nature Conservancy Council with purposes identical to those in England and Wales, and a further three have been proposed but not yet designated.

Northern Ireland

There are no national parks in Northern Ireland, although the Nature Conservation and (NI) Order 1985 contains powers for designation of such areas.

Nine **Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty** have been designated and two others recommended. These cover a range of mountain, valley, lake, moorland and coastal landscapes and, as in England and Wales, designation is intended to afford a higher degree of planning control to limit or prevent development detrimental to scenic quality. Their sizes range from 2,000 to 101,000 ha and together they account for approximately 18% of the total area of Northern Ireland.

There is also one ESA in Northern Ireland.

Other protected areas

In addition to the above, there are other categories of protected area in the UK created for nature conservation purposes, such as national nature reserves and sites of special scientific interest. The important contribution which they make to protected landscapes conservation is discussed in the separate paper by the Director General of the Nature Conservancy Council, but these areas do not fall within protected landscape category. Nor do the Forestry Commission's National Forest Parks, though these areas, mainly of productive forestry, serve an important recreation and wildlife conservation purpose.

Conclusion

As this account makes clear, the actual arrangements for the conservation of protected landscapes differ between the categories, and from country to country within the United Kingdom.. Table 2 sets these out in summary form. The relevance of this is explored further in the section on Mechanisms in part III of this paper.

MEASURES TO ENSURE CONSERVATION OF PROTECTED LANDSCAPES

	England and Wales						Scotland		Northern Ireland	
	National Parks	Broads	New Forest	AONBs	Heritage Coasts	ESAs	National Scenic Areas	ESAs	AONBs	ESAs
Selected by	CC	CC	Crown	CC	CC	CC/NCC	CCS	CCS/NCC	DOE/NI	DOE/NI
Designated by	CC	In Legislation	Historic 'perambulation'	CC	CC/LAs	MAFF/ WOAD	SO/SS	DAFS	DOE/NI	Dept Agric NI
Special administering authority	Yes	Yes	Yes	Optional	Optional	No	No	No	Yes DOE/NI	No
Management plans required	Yes	Yes	Yes	Optional	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Special funding arrangments	Yes	Yes	Yes	Some grants	Some grants	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Additional planning powers, arrangements and/or policy	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Additional management powers, arrangments and/or policy	Yes	Yes	Yes	Limited	Yes	Yes	Optional	Yes	Limited	Yes
Designated staff to administer	Yes	Yes	Yes	Optional	Usually	No	No	No	Yes DOE/NI	No

1. AONBs = Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty
2. ESA = Environmentally Sensitive Areas
3. CC = Countryside Commission
4. CCS = Countryside Commission for Scotland
5. NCC = Nature Conservancy Council
6. DOE/NI = Department of Environment, N Ireland
7. MAFF = Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food
8. WOAD = Welsh Office Agriculture Department
9. DAFS = Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland
10. SO/SS = Secretary of State for Scotland

The Role of Key Responsible Authorities

The responsibility for the protection of landscape in the United Kingdom rests with many different authorities. These can best be described under the following headings:

- Government departments
- National conservation agencies
- Local authorities, including national park authorities
- Other public bodies
- Non-govermental organisations
- Private landowners.

Government departments: in each of the four constituent parts of the United Kingdom, one department of government has a lead responsibility in this area: the Department of the Environment in England, the Welsh Office, the Scottish Development Department and the Department of the Environment (Northern Ireland). Ministers in these environmental departments have a number of roles which determine how landscapes are protected: they initiate legislation for Parliament to consider, determine (within limits set by the Government) the budgets of the national agencies concerned and the Government's contribution to the running of national parks in England and Wales, confirm many of the categories of designations made by the national conservation agencies, approve the strategic or structure plans of local authorities which guide developments in their areas, and determine controversial development cases which come to them for decision, normally after the process of public enquiry. In addition, in Northern Ireland, Government departments perform many of the functions of local authorities. Thus - apart from Northern Ireland and the special case of ESAs - environmental government departments do not themselves get involved in the day-to-day business of protected landscapes conservation, but they do set the "rules of the game" and provide the resources needed by the key actors.

The policies of other departments have a significant impact upon protected landscapes. None more so than the agricultural departments whose policies, often reflecting those of the European Community, influence agricultural practices in the protected landscapes; likewise, the Forestry Commission's policies affect forestry and woodland management in the countryside. Other departments create an impact through the management of the land they own, eg the Ministry of Defence, or the Forestry Commission in their role as owners of the national forest estate.

National conservation agencies: the role of the NCC has been described in a separate paper before the Symposium by its Director General. The Countryside Commission and the Countryside Commission for Scotland are both directly charged with a duty to promote the protection of the natural beauty of the countryside, and facilitate its enjoyment by the public. The Countryside Commission:

- select and then designates national parks and AONBs (both subject to Ministerial confirmation), and defines Heritage Coasts
- advises on the designation of ESAs
- advises the responsible authorities on the management of all protected landscapes, but especially of the national parks
- advises Ministers on the status of protected landscapes and what needs to be done to ensure their conservation - including changes to government policies
- offers grant aid for a range of conservation tasks and protected landscapes, including those undertaken by voluntary bodies
- pioneers new techniques and approaches to the conservation of such areas
- promotes public understanding of the importance of these areas and of their conservation.

The Countryside Commission for Scotland:

- advises the Secretary of State for Scotland on the designation of national scenic areas
- advises on the designation of ESAs
- advises planning authorities and the Scottish Development Department on landscape conservation
- provides a central source of technical and design advice on landscape conservation
- offers grant-aid for a range of conservation tasks to conserve and enhance protected landscapes, including these undertaken by voluntary bodies
- promotes new approaches to the conservation of protected landscapes
- promotes public undertstanding of the importance of protected areas and of their conservation.

Both agencies receive their funds from Government departments, which also determine staff numbers. The Countryside Commission has a budget of £19.5 million in this current year, this in addition to the separate government funding of the national parks (currently £10 million per annum) and of ESAs (currently £6m per annum). The Countryside Commission for Scotland's budget is currently £5.45 million.

Local authorities, including national park authorities: the primary responsibility for the conservation of all protected landscapes, except ESAs and in Northern Ireland, rests with the local authorities. Local government arrangements differ between England and Wales on the one hand and Scotland on the other, but generally there are two tiers of local government, with strategic planning being undertaken at the higher level and detailed land use planning being the responsibility of the lower tier. In addition, all local authorities have powers to take positive measures for landscape conservation, for which they can receive grant aid from the Countryside Commissions. Unique arrangements operate in the national parks; in effect they are a national responsibility entrusted to local government, but - as explained - with special features in their funding, constitution and administration and subject to national oversight by the Countryside Commission.

Other public agencies: public and quasi-public bodies, such as water authorities, and area electricity boards, own land and undertake operations in protected landscapes. They are subject to a requirement in the Countryside Acts and the Nature Conservation and Amenity Land (NI) Order 1985 to have due regard to the conservation of protected landscapes.

The non-governmental organisations play a particularly important role in the United Kingdom. Thus the National Trust, which was established in 1895, now owns nearly 220,000 ha of fine countryside in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, which is managed for the protection of its natural beauty and for public enjoyment. Its ownership includes more than 5% of the area of the national parks, and as much as 25% of the Lake District National Park. The Trust, which is supported by nearly 1.5m members, enjoys a privileged taxation status and may uniquely declare its properties inalienable (ie they cannot be sold, mortgaged or compulsorily acquired, or their existing use radically changed, without the express will of Parliament). The National Trust for Scotland, established in 1931, owns nearly 40,000 ha of scenically important countryside protected for its quality and public enjoyment. It has 150,000 members and has similar taxation status and inalienability powers as the National Trust. The Woodland Trust was set up more recently to acquire and protect woodlands and now holds over 3,400 ha. Some voluntary bodies undertake practical conservation tasks, such as tree planting, much of it within protected landscapes; many thousands of individuals are involved in this work. In addition, the national and local nature conservation voluntary bodies protect sites which are important in terms of landscape quality as well as nature conservation. Finally, many national and local NGOs form pressure groups for conservation, paying special attention to the needs of protected landscapes, notably the Council for National Parks, a consortium of voluntary groups committed to advocating the national park cause. As this paper records, NGOs led the debate which culminated in post-war legislation to set up national parks etc and they remain an influential political force which all political parties must respect.

Private landowners: since the designation of protected landscapes does not affect landownership, it is apparent that the role of private landowners, especially farmers and foresters, is critically important to the achievement of conservation objectives. It is all the more so since, by and large, agricultural and forestry operations are outside the scope of the town and country planning system. The problems this can give rise to are described in the next part of the paper. But it should be acknowledged that traditional farming and forestry practices created the beauty and variety of the best landscapes in Britain, and that many landowners voluntarily care sensitively for the environment in their ownership. With the introduction of the ESA approach, in particular, the machinery is now coming into place which will provide incentives to those who choose to farm in an environmentally sensitive manner.

III RELEVANCE OF UK EXPERIENCE TO THE SYMPOSIUM THEMES

The foregoing account is descriptive, rather than analytic. It described the objectives of protected landscapes in the United Kingdom, and the machinery in place to secure those objectives, rather than considering critically how successful, or otherwise, we have been in protecting the best of our rural environment. In this final section, the relevance of UK experience to each of the four symposium themes is considered; and the problems, as well as the achievements are highlighted.

Conservation and Development

Four aspects are particularly relevant:

farming and forestry,

major development proposals,

rural development, and

tourism and recreation

Since the protected landscapes of the UK are largely the product of past farming and forestry practices, it follows that protected landscapes conservation is closely tied to developments in farming and forestry. British agriculture, in common with that of its European partners, has undergone a revolution during the post-war period. Many of the traditional practices which created the landscapes which we have sought to protect have been abandoned, and new techniques adopted in their place in the pursuit of maximised output - a national policy objective since the war. The result has been a loss of semi-natural features (eg wetlands drained, heathland and downland ploughed, ancient woods destroyed, and hedgerows removed), the neglect of traditional features (eg stone barns abandoned and stone walls left unrepaired), and the intrusion of new features, (eg large, modern farm buildings, and much larger fields), which are often out of sympathy with the special qualities of the area. This trend, which has been the subject of much critical comment, has occurred across the countryside: if some of the protected landscapes have been rather less affected than, for example, eastern England, this is mainly because the opportunity to modernise farming has been limited in the wilder, more rugged parts of Britain which have the most appealing landscapes. Except latterly, and then only to some extent in the national parks and in ESAs, there have been no controls for landscape purposes over the way in which farmers use their land or any special policies to encourage them to farm in sympathy with the environment. As a result, in some areas, for example, the heather moorlands of Exmoor National Park or the chalk downlands of some of the AONBs in southern England, the original landscapes which justified designation have been so badly damaged that it is questionable whether they would all achieve designation if proposed now.

However, things are changing. In the first place, a number of measures have been taken in recent years to ensure that the national park authorities are able to protect the finest landscapes against the impact of modern agriculture: the introduction of management agreements under which farmers are paid not to "improve" their land, the extension of planning control over farm and forestry buildings and roads, and promised legislation to introduce "landscape conservation orders" - which would provide a fall back power to forbid some farm improvement schemes - are all measures designed to bring farming and conservation closer together in national parks and in the Broads. The development of the ESA concept is even more promising; it offers for the first time the possibility of applying money set aside for agricultural support to conservation purposes, and specifically rewards farmers for farming in the traditional manner rather than encouraging them to abandon those approaches. The Countryside Commission believes that the next stage of policy in this field should be to extend the ESA approach to protected landscapes generally, so that in all national parks, and AONBs too, special agricultural regimes would be in place which would encourage farmers to maintain the landscape, and the wildlife and historic interest which it contains. The case for this approach has been much strengthened by the advent of agricultural surpluses in the European Community: there is now no need to encourage farmers to produce more (indeed the problem is to persuade them to produce less). Instead it is important to find alternative sources of income and alternative rationales for supporting rural communities; an extension of the ESA approach would be directly relevant to this requirement.

Government funding and policy have been, and continue to be, to encourage afforestation of open country - indeed with many agricultural products now in surplus, there are likely to be more trees planted in future on land now used to grow crops or rear stock. Most new planting employs a limited number of coniferous species covering extensive areas of formerly open countryside, and has been largely concentrated in Scotland. The impact on some landscapes (and the opportunities for access) has been dramatic, and has occurred even in parts of the national parks, although informal agreements operate to exclude afforestation from the more sensitive parts of the parks. Recently new policies have been introduced which will encourage more broadleaved planting and require the Forestry Commission to be more responsive to environmental concerns, but the issue of the afforestation of open country remains controversial in England and Wales and has recently become so in the north of Scotland.

The conclusion which can be drawn from this discussion is that the protection of landscapes cannot be secured unless farming and forestry are required to recognise the importance of the landscape protection objective. That means that Government policies for these primary land uses should take on board the special needs of protected landscapes areas, by encouraging farmers and foresters to follow systems of land management which are in harmony with environmental objectives.

Since protected landscapes are extensive areas (for example the national parks and the AONBs together account for nearly a quarter of the land surface of England and Wales), it is inevitable that from time to time proposals are made to undertake major development projects within these areas. For example, in recent years there have been proposals for roads, quarries, nuclear power stations and oil developments in designated areas. UK experience is that such proposals can only be considered properly if there are agreed criteria for deciding whether or not such major developments can be tolerated within protected landscapes. The criteria which the Countryside Commission believes appropriate (and which indeed are widely accepted as relevant) are these:

a. national importance: the scheme must be demonstrated to be of importance to the national economy;

b. alternative sites or routes: it must be shown that there are no realistic alternatives to the site or route proposed for the scheme;

c. environmental impact: notwithstanding the first two considerations, there may well still be occasions when the impact of the development on the protected landscape is such that it would not be acceptable in any case;

d. conditions: if the development passes the above tests, it should then be subject to the most rigorous environmental conditions, relating to pollution control, design standards, landscaping etc; and where the site is capable of subsequent restoration (eg in the case of a quarry) that should be required through a condition of planning permission.

However logical such criteria may appear, and even if agreed to by all parties, there is still considerable room for argument over their interpretation; indeed the Countryside Commission believes that a number of schemes have gone ahead in recent years in protected landscapes which ought not to have been permitted. Even so, adoption of these principles - especially by the government departments concerned - is important if the debate around major development schemes is to focus on the important issues. Thus, while it is unrealistic to seek to exclude all forms of major development from all the protected landscapes of the United Kingdom, some firm guiding principles about when and where they could be tolerated are essential - and when adopted they must be rigorously adhered to with full central government commitment.

All the protected landscapes of Britain, but especially those in the more densely populated parts of England and Wales, contain significant human populations and important local economies. Because of this, there is widespread acknowledgement, even in conservation circles, that policies for the conservation of protected landscapes must be linked to those for sensitive rural development. By "sensitive rural development" is meant encouragement to small scale industry and other forms of employment, and provision for housing and services, and which aim primarily to meet local needs, all of a scale, design and type which are acceptable in the environment, and which - wherever appropriate - make use of the natural resources which the area has to offer on a sustainable basis. While traditional and craft enterprises have their place, the idea is not to create a fosilised economy or a "museum community", and promotion of suitably-located and sympathetically-designed modern industry is to be welcomed.

The UK experience is that, providing these criteria are met, rural development need not have an adverse impact upon the landscape (although there are, regrettably, examples of such developments which have not been carried out sympathetically). Indeed, by strengthening the economic and social base in such areas, environmentally-sound rural development can help ensure that there is more local support for conservation. There is an interesting question as to the precise role which the conservation agencies themselves should play in this regard; especially the national park authorities in England and Wales. A widely held view is that they should aim to use their planning powers and other influence to promote rural development which meets local needs in an environmentally acceptable manner, but should not themselves become rural development agencies: they should be "enablers" rather than "promoters".

The general conclusion is clear: since Category V protected landscapes contain populations and economies, conservation policies must go hand in hand with those to promote economic and social rural development; but since these areas are also environmentally sensitive, the sorts of rural development which are provided therein must be acceptable in environmental terms.

Tourism and recreation are special examples of the two-way relationship which exists between conservation and development in protected landscapes - indeed public access is a specific objective of some such areas, such as the national parks. The quality of the environment is what attracts people to the areas concerned; therefore it makes no sense if tourism is permitted to destroy those very qualities which appeal to visitors. On the other hand, proper provision for visitors is essential if the demands are to be met in an organised way - and if the economic benefits are to be secured for the local community. The issue then is not whether tourism and recreation have a place in protected landscapes, but how that demand is to be planned for and managed.

The problem occurs at several levels. Major built facilities, such as hotels or caravan sites, can be intrusive in the landscape. Cars and congestion on roads can destroy the peace and quiet of the countryside and make it a less pleasant place to live in, or visit. And people on foot can do damage to wildlife, and, by trampling certain routes, cause locally severe erosion.

All these problems occur in protected landscapes in the United Kingdom: in a small, relatively crowded island, these can be particularly acute problems of tourist-related congestion. But necessity is the mother of invention, and the techniques for resolving many of the problems are fairly well understood - if not always applied for want of resources or political will. Thus new or expanded tourist development is subject to planning control which can be used to determine the location of such schemes and influence their design. Congestion on the roads is less easily coped with, but traffic management, information to promote alternative destinations, support for the recreational use of public transport and promotion of off-season visiting are all methods used to handle visitors in protected landscapes. The techniques of visitor management through the employment of rangers, the provision of information etc can be used to guide people away from sensitive environments, and encourage considerate behaviour in the countryside; whilst much work has been done on footpath restoration. Obviously there remain serious conflicts between conservation and recreation, but the UK experience with protected landscapes suggests that a positive approach to the provision of recreation and tourism pays dividends particularly if encouragement is given to those forms of recreation and tourism which are compatible with the quality of the protected landscapes.

A further point arises from the foregoing account: protected landscapes in the UK, as perhaps with Category V areas in other countries, can be seen as test beds for bringing conservation and development closer together. Our national parks in particular are now being spoken of as "greenprints" for the countryside at large; if a more sustainable approach to development can be achieved in these areas, the experience learnt therein is available for wider application. It is an exciting prospect, which means that such areas could have as much to do with developing solutions to conservation and development problems for future application as they have with protecting the environment inherited from previous generations.

Working with People

Conservation of protected landscapes depends upon public support at several levels: amongst the general public, from those who visit the areas, and - above all - within the local community which resides within them.

At the national level, the requirement is essentially a political one: politicians will only provide the resources for conservation of protected landscapes and commit themselves to their protection if they are convinced that there is broad public support for such a policy. In the UK, such support certainly exists: the size of organisations such as the National Trusts, the coverage given to conservation topics in the media and the sales of books on the subject - all testify to a widespread, growing and increasingly articulate public interest. But the interest is not always clearly focussed: surveys by the Countryside Commission, for example, found that public knowledge of national parks (the protected landscape category with the highest profile) was limited and confused. A major two year campaign to help raise public awareness of national parks has been run by the Commission, the national park authorities and the leading voluntary bodies concerned to redress this. This campaign culminated in a Festival of National Parks, held in the grounds of Chatsworth House in the Peak District National Park on 20 September 1987. Though organised in order to celebrate the past achievements of the parks, and their importance to the public, the event was also used as a platform for the launch of

a. a set of public declarations of support for national parks by government departments, public bodies and other organisations which can affect what happens in these areas, and

b. a ten-point manifesto by the Countryside Commission which sets the agenda for national parks over the next five years and clearly indicate the closer integration of conservation and development which is coming to dominate thinking about the future of these areas.

By such initiatives, the Commission and others hope to improve public understanding and support for protected landscapes in the UK. But this is not made any easier by the number of categories which exist and the relative subtlety of some of the policy objectives. It is, for example, easier for the layman to grasp the purposes behind a Category II national park than those behind a national park in England and Wales; indeed, it is sometimes said that our parks are "neither national, nor parks" - in the sense that they are largely in private ownership and predominantly in productive use. This is not to argue that Britain ought to have adopted a fundamentally different approach to the conservation of such areas, merely to draw attention to the difficulty of putting across the concept.

Gaining the support of the visitors to protected landscapes depends upon proper provision for their needs and the availability of appropriate information. Providing for needs used to mean car parks, picnic sites, lavatories and so on. These remain important, but efforts are now being made in the UK to broaden out substantially the opportunity which people have to enjoy and learn about the rural environment. Initiatives include: supporting public transport services which enable city dwellers without cars to gain access to attractive areas of the countryside, and linking these services with information about what to do, and where to go, on arrival; seeking to meet the special needs and interests which minority groups, the disabled or ethnic minorities for example, have in enjoying the countryside; and making better use of the system of 120,000 miles of rights of way of footpaths and bridleways through the countryside, including protected landscapes. On the information front, the need is both to advise visitors (including tourists) of the attractions to be found in protected landscapes, and to inform them of their rights and responsibilities as users of the countryside. Information of this kind is widely available in the UK.

But it is the local population whose understanding of the purposes of protected landscapes is most important. Without it, conservative policies will not succeed: and this is especially true of the farming community which manages most of the land within the designated areas.

UK experience suggests that local public support for the conservation of protected landscapes can be difficult to build if local people see only the negative aspects of living in such areas. Refusals of planning permission, for example, can create local hostility, especially if they are believed to cause a loss of jobs, however strong the environmental case. To a limited extent this problem can be overcome by education and public information about the purposes of protected landscapes, but it is far more likely to be dispelled if the agencies responsible for the area can be seen to be actively concerned with the economic and social well being of their inhabitants - hence the importance of national park authorities, for example, adopting policies to encourage sensitive forms of rural development, or showing an active concern to help local people solve their housing problems. Conservation agencies also have a job to do to put across the message that the conservation of the protected landscape is an investment in the long term prosperity of the area, since tourism, and on occasion, other forms of employment are drawn to the area precisely because its environmental qualities have been protected. Indeed, while there is still a widespread view that conservation means less jobs, in reality the reverse is more often true.

The conservation agency can also build local support by being seen to be actively concerned to resolve the conflicts which visitors cause - for tourism has, of course, a negative as well as a positive impact on the local community. In many protected landscapes, a "countryside management" service has been developed which, for example, provides funds and advice to help farmers deal with litter or damage to fences and walls caused by visitors, or which mobilises volunteers and unemployed people to work on footpath maintenance, tree planting and other forms of environmental and recreational improvement of help to visitor and local people alike.

Mechanisms

The essence of the protected landscape concept is balance and partnership. The areas have been designated because they convey a particularly harmonious balance between man and native; and the mechanisms which have been designed for their administration recognise that there is a national concern as well as a local one in maintaining that balance, and are based, consequently, on forging a partnership between the national and local interest. As Table 2 shows, the mechanisms are most highly developed in the case of the national parks and the Broads, but they exist to some extent in all the categories. The following are the main means by which partnership has been secured in the national parks:

designation	this is done by a national agency (ie the Countryside Commission) to national criteria, subject to Ministerial confirmation,
constitution:	there is a separate, statutory committee or board for each park, with two thirds local politicians and one third members appointed by the Minister - on the advice of the Countryside Commission.
funding:	the national interest is represented by government meeting three quarters of the net costs of running the parks, on the advice of the Countryside Commission
plans:	each park must produce and regularly update a national park plan, to be reviewed by the Countryside Commission: as well as a statutory map of areas of particular natural beauty which it will seek to conserve
planning:	national parks have marginally more planning *powers* than local authorities generally, but pursue significantly tighter *policies*: the Commission advises on difficult cases
management:	there are special programmes for management of the landscape (and visitors) in all national parks, for which government funds are available
staff:	by law, each national park has its own chief officer, appointed in consultation with the Countryside Commission.

In general, the effectiveness of the protected landscape designation depends upon mechanisms of this kind being in place. But it also depends critically upon public support and government commitment for the objectives - mechanisms without public backing, the resources required and policy back up are of limited value when protected landscape values are at risk.

International Opportunities

In the past, the UK protected landscapes system has perhaps stood a little apart from the world-wide national parks and protected areas movement. In part this may have been due to criticism from IUCN about the UK use of the term 'national park' to apply to areas which do not meet the international criteria for Category II. As this account makes clear, there are, in fact, no true national parks in the UK, even though their establishment is at least a theoretical possibility in parts of Scotland.

Fortunately, closer links have developed in recent years, especially since the Bali Congress recognised the importance of IUCN's involvement in the full range of protected area categories. The "protected landscapes community" of the UK is playing a more active role in the affairs of IUCN and the European Federation of Nature and Natural Parks. Moreover there has been growing interest among other countries in the UK experience, especially those in Europe and North America (the Countryside Commission recently signed a memorandum of understanding with the United States National Park Service which specifically referred to the desire to cooperate more closely on protected landscape issues). No doubt the United Kingdom's membership of the EEC has helped to widen horizons too.

Training is an important aspect of international cooperation which could be developed. There are already establishments in Britain which play a significant role in training the managers of protected landscapes - for example the Losehill Hall study centre in the Peak District National Park which runs courses for rangers from several European countries. There are also university departments which have developed curricula in subjects of direct relevance to the management of protected landscapes. These centres and departments could play a more prominent international role in the training of protected landscape managers and undertake research which is needed to improve the quality of management in the future.

The submission of the Lake District National Park for World Heritage Site status under the World Heritage Convention is evidence of the wish of the UK to obtain wider international recognition of its protected landscapes work. The UK believes that this area is an outstanding example of the harmonious interaction of man and nature, whose hoped-for designation under the Convention should help establish more firmly the importance of the Category V approach to conservation generally. There would also be local benefits, since international recognition of the area would help to raise the status of the national park, and respect for its purposes, in the eyes of those who live in the Lake District; and inded generally would help raise the status of national parks in Britain.

The International Symposium on Protected Landscapes is convened in the belief that there is growing interest in many countries in the Category V approach. The UK offers its own experience to this international forum; and looks forward to learning from the experience of others.

Protected areas in the United Kingdom

Zones protégées du Royaume-Uni   Zonas protegidas del Reino Unido

NATURE CONSERVATION	
National Nature Reserves	•
Marine Nature Reserves	△
"Ramsar" Sites	○
Biosphere Reserves	◇
Special Protection Areas	□
LANDSCAPE CONSERVATION	
World Heritage Sites	*
National Parks (England and Wales)	▨
Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)	☐
National Scenic Areas (Scotland)	⬚
Heritage Coasts (England and Wales)	☐
National Forest Parks	☐
Environmentally Sensitive Areas	⬚
Other special protected areas	— — — — — —
National boundaries	········
Major built-up areas	☁

Height
500
200
metres

PROTECTION DE LA NATURE	
Réserves naturelles nationales	•
Réserves naturelles marines	△
Zones "Ramsar"	○
Réserves biosphériques	◇
Zones de protection spécial	□
PROTECTION DES PAYSAGES	
Zones du patrimoine mondial	*
Parcs nationaux (Angleterre et Pays de Galles)	▨
Zones de beauté naturelle exceptionnelle (Angleterre, Pays de Galles et Irlande du Nord)	☐
Zones pittoresques nationales (Ecosse)	⬚
Côtes patrimoine (Angleterre et Pays de Galles)	☐
Parcs nationaux forestiers	☐
Zones attentives a l environnement	⬚
Autres zones speciales protegees	— — — — — —
Frontières nationales	········
Les régions urbains les plus grandes	☁

Hauteur
500
200
metres

Vous trouverez au verso des descriptions detailées et les adresses pour tous renseignements supplementaires

PROTECCIÓN DEL LA NATURALEZA	
Cotos naturales nacionales	•
Cotos naturales maritimos	△
Terrenos "Ramsar"	○
Cotos biosféricos	◇
Zonas de protección especial	□
PROTECCIÓN DEL PAISAJE	
Sitios de patrimonio mundial	*
Parques nacionales (Inglaterra y Gales)	▨
Zonas de excepcional belleza natural (Inglaterra, Gales y Irlanda Septentrional)	☐
Zonas escenicas nacionales (Escocia)	⬚
Costas de riqueza ancestral (Inglaterra y Gales)	☐
Parques forestales nacionales	☐
Zonas de medio ambiente interesante	⬚
Otras zonas protegidas especiales	— — — — — —
Limites nacionales	········
Las regiones urbanes las mas grandes	☁

Altura
500
200
metros

Se dan descripciones detalladas y direcciones para mayor informacion a vuelta de pagina

National Nature Reserves (England, Wales and Scotland)

The 231 National Nature Reserves (NNRs) represent some of the most important natural and semi-natural ecosystems in Great Britain and are managed for the purposes of the conservation of the habitat and of providing special opportunities for research and study. These reserves have been established over the years since 1949 by the Nature Conservancy Council (NCC) or its predecessors the Natural Environment Research Council and the Nature Conservancy. Some of these NNRs are owned or leased by the NCC, while others are established under Nature Reserve Agreements by which the owner and occupier retain their rights but agree, in the interest of nature conservation, to certain conditions affecting land use and management. Since 1981 land that is held by an approved body and managed as a nature reserve may be declared as an NNR.

National Nature Reserves (Northern Ireland)

The 44 NNRs, designated by the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland, have been chosen for the same purposes as their mainland Britain counterparts, and are either owned or leased by that Department, or managed in agreement with the owner.

Marine Nature Reserves

In Great Britain the NCC is responsible for establishing and managing Marine Nature Reserves (MNRs) for any area covered (continuously or intermittently) by tidal waters or parts of the sea up to the limits of territorial waters, for the purpose of conserving marine flora and fauna or features of geological or physiographic interest, or to provide opportunities for their study. Lundy, the first MNR, was designated in November 1986. In Northern Ireland the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland has responsibility for establishing MNRs.

"Ramsar" Sites

"Ramsar" wetland sites are designated by governments in accordance with the provisions of the Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, especially as Waterfowl Habitat, signed at Ramsar, Iran, in 1971. The UK ratified the Convention in 1976 when it designated 13 sites. The criteria for the selection of sites were revised at the Conference of Contracting Parties in Cagliari, Sardinia, in November 1980 and Regina, Canada in 1987. To date the UK Government has designated 30 sites in Great Britain and one site in Northern Ireland.

Biosphere Reserves

The concept of the Biosphere Reserve was launched by UNESCO in 1970 as project No 8 of its ecological programme on Man and the Biosphere (MAB). Criteria and guidelines for the selection of Biosphere Reserves were devised by a UNESCO Task Force in 1974. In short they are protected areas of land and coastal environment representing significant examples of biomes throughout the world. They have particular value as benchmarks or standards for the measurement of long-term changes in the biosphere as a whole; and in some cases, as in the United Kingdom, coincide with or incorporate existing national parks, nature reserves or similar protected areas. The 13 areas shown on the map were accepted by UNESCO as Biosphere Reserves, and notified to the UK between 1976 and 1977.

Special Protection Areas

Special Protection Areas (SPAs) are notified to the Commission of the European Communities under Article 4 of the Council Directive of 2 April 1979 on the Conservation of Wild Birds (79/409 EEC). They are established by member states of the EEC to conserve bird species listed under the Directive, and in particular species which are endangered, have restricted or local populations or which require special habitat protection measures. To date the Government has notified 22 sites to the Commission.

World Heritage Sites

Natural and Cultural treasures of exceptional interest and universal value are inscribed on a World Heritage List, drawn up under the UNESCO World Heritage Convention of 1972. Signatories to the convention elect a committee of 21 specialists to evaluate nominations with the advice of (1) International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) and (2) International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS). The UK signed the convention in 1984 and cares for two natural sites: St Kilda and The Giant's Causeway.

National Parks (England and Wales)

These ten areas, designated by the National Parks Commission, were confirmed by the Government between 1951 and 1957 and are exceptionally fine stretches of relatively wild countryside, such as the larger unspoilt areas of mountain, moor, heath and some of the coast. The National Parks cover 13,600 km^2 or 9.5% of the total area of England and Wales, and the greater part of their area is in private ownership.

National Scenic Areas (Scotland)

These 40 areas, covering approximately 13% of the total area of Scotland, are areas of outstanding scenic interest which are part of the national heritage. They were defined by the Countryside Commission for Scotland in 1978 and have been adopted by the Secretary of State for Scotland for planning purposes, replacing the five National Park Direction Areas which had existed since 1948. The greater part of the land within these areas remains in private ownership.

Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONBs — England and Wales)

Thirty-six AONBs designated by the Countryside Commission and its predecessor, the National Parks Commission, have been confirmed by the Secretaries of State for the Environment or for Wales and they cover 17,284 km^2, about 11.3% of the total area. Like National Parks, AONBs are mainly in private ownership, and include areas representing a wide range of nationally significant landscape including some lowland areas.

Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (Northern Ireland)

Eight AONBs covering approximately 18% of the total area were designated by the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland under the Amenity Lands Act 1965. These areas are being reviewed under the Nature Conservation and Amenity Lands Order (Northern Ireland) 1985 and one AONB, Mourne, was redesignated in 1986. A wide range of landscapes is covered by the designation, including fine stretches of relatively wild countryside. Most of the land is in private ownership.

Heritage Coast (England and Wales)

Thirty-nine lengths of fine unspoilt coastline have been defined by local authorities and the Countryside Commission, covering 1370 km of coastline or 31% of the total coastline of England and Wales. While the greater part of the Heritage Coast is in private ownership, a substantial length is in the ownership of the National Trust.

Forest Parks (England, Wales and Scotland)

Forest Parks have been established by the Forestry Commission in the belief that where fine areas of mountain or other open country have been acquired in connection with the planting of extensive new forests the whole should be open for public enjoyment. The first Forest Park was open in 1935, and there are now seven Forest Parks, which include areas used for grazing as well as for timber growing.

Forest Parks (Northern Ireland)

The nine Forest Parks in Northern Ireland, like their counterparts in mainland Britain, cover areas of fine open countryside which have been acquired in connection with the planting of extensive new forests. The Parks are owned by the Department of Agriculture for Northern Ireland.

Environmentally Sensitive Areas

In Environmentally Sensitive Areas (ESAs) farmers are offered financial incentives to farm in a traditional way for the benefit of the landscape, wildlife and historic interest of these areas. ESAs are established by member states of the European Community under Article 19 of EC Regulation 797/85. Five ESAs have been designated in England, one in Wales and two in Scotland.

Other special protected areas

There are two areas, the New Forest and the Broads, which are unique in the way in which they are protected. The New Forest is an unenclosed area of woodland, heath and bog owned by the Crown and managed by the Forestry Commission for nature conservation, recreation, grazing and timber production. The scenery of rivers, marshes and shallow meres of the Broads is acknowledged to be of national park quality. The Government has agreed to replace the existing Broads Authority with a special statutory authority, akin to a national park authority, to ensure the conservation of the area.

Addresses for further information are given overleaf.

Countryside
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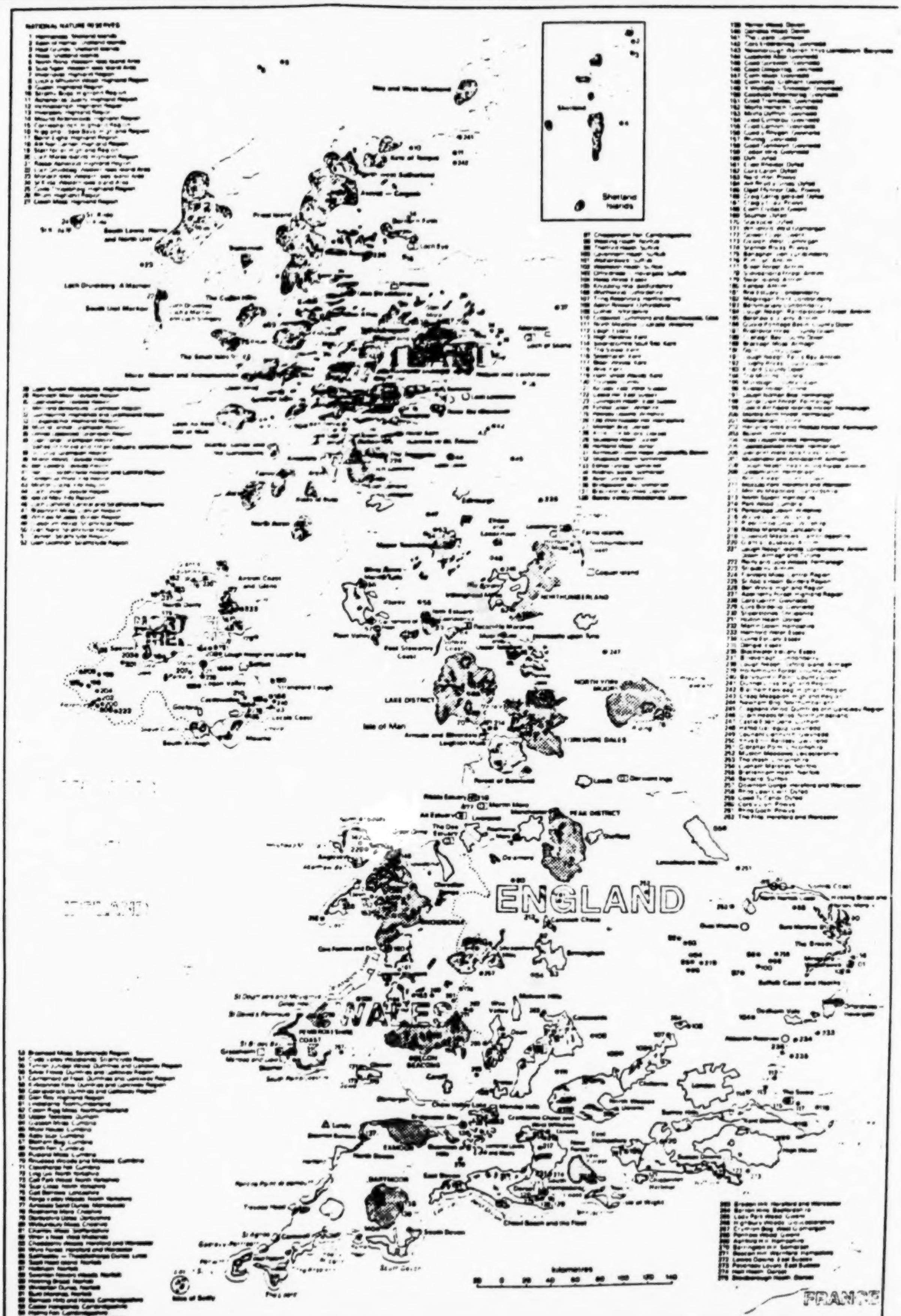
NATIONAL NATURE RESERVES
Shetland Islands
South Uist Machair
The Cuillin Hills
North Antrim Coast
Lough Neagh and Lough Beg
NORTHUMBERLAND
LAKE DISTRICT
NORTH YORK MOORS
Isle of Man
YORKSHIRE DALES
PEAK DISTRICT
ENGLAND
WALES
PEMBROKESHIRE COAST
BRECON BEACONS
EXMOOR
DARTMOOR
Isles of Scilly
Isle of Wight
Chesil Beach and the Fleet
Lundy
The Broads
Suffolk Coast and Heaths
kilometres
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20
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PROTECTED LANDSCAPES: CONTRIBUTING TO CONSERVATION

by

P.H.C. Lucas, Deputy Chairman

and

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IUCN's Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas

Pre-Symposium Paper prepared for

INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON PROTECTED LANDSCAPES

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PROTECTED LANDSCAPES: CONTRIBUTING TO CONSERVATION

ABSTRACT

The rapid changes in economic and social development which have taken place in recent years have led to a number of new approaches to the protection of our natural environment. Over much of the world, the urgency to link the protection of natural areas to development through research, base-line monitoring, environmental assessment, maintenance of biological diversity, watershed management, environmental education and the incorporation of resident human populations, has led to a shift in management of natural areas. National parks are as important as ever, but there are now a number of additional categories of protected areas which are managed with different objectives for bringing benefits to society. This paper provides an overview of the use and potential of one of these categories - the Protected Landscape. It reviews the definition and application of the concept in different countries and suggests future directions for its further development.

1. IUCN AND CNPPA

The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) was founded in 1948 and is the world's largest, most representative and most experienced alliance of active conservation authorities, agencies and interest groups joined uniquely to States whose governments have agreed to adhere to the statutes of IUCN.

At the beginning of 1987, IUCN's State and organizational membership numbered 568 involving 116 countries. State members numbered 57 and there were 126 Government agency members, 342 national non-governmental organizations (NGOs), 27 international NGOs and 16 non-voting affiliates. As well, there are individual and organizational supporters in 70 countries.

IUCN's status is that of an independent, international non-profit organization. Its goal is to promote scientifically-based action directed towards the conservation of nature and natural resources.

IUCN's objects (1) are:

i) to encourage and facilitate cooperation between governments, national and international organizations concerned with the conservation of natures and natural resources;

ii) to promote in all parts of the world national and international action in respect of the conservation of nature and natural resources;

iii) to encourage scientific research related to the conservation of nature and natural resources and to disseminate information about such research;

iv) to promote education in and disseminate widely information on the conservation of nature and natural resources and in other ways to increase public awareness of the conservation of nature and natural resources;

v) to prepare draft international agreements relating to the conservation of nature and natural resources and to encourage governments to adhere to agreements once concluded;

vi) to assist governments to improve their legislation relating to the conservation of nature and natural resources; and

vii) to take any other action which will promote the conservation of nature and natural resources.

Members of IUCN tackle these shared challenges in natural resource conservation using the World Conservation Strategy (2) as an agreed basis for setting priorities for action.

IUCN monitors the state of conservation through the work of its Conservation Monitoring Centre and, specifically in relation to protected areas, through its Protected Areas Data Unit (PADU) which assembles data for the authoritative United Nations List of National Parks and Protected Areas (3).

IUCN plans conservation action which is scientifically sound and realistic in socio-economic terms, using the information obtained through monitoring. It promotes conservation action through dissemination of information and provides advice and assistance necessary to achieve conservation action.

IUCN has formal working relations with a wide range of international bodies. It acts as the scientific and programming body for WWF. Among United Nations agencies, IUCN works especially closely with the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco), particularly in implementing the Biosphere Reserves programme and the International Conservation for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (World Heritage Convention) (4).

IUCN's secretariat, based at the World Conservation Centre in Gland, Switzerland in accommodation shared with WWF International, receives technical support from a worldwide fellowship of more than 3000 experts with experience in natural sciences, environmental education, law, protected area management, planning and other fields important to nature conservation. These men and women donate their time and experience to the six IUCN Commissions, one of which is the Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas (CNPPA).

CNPPA provides scientific and technical advice on the selection, establishment and management of national parks and other protected areas working through a chairman elected by IUCN's triennal General Assembly, a deputy chairman appointed by IUCN's Council and vice chairmen who are geographically based supported by a volunteer network of 340 park experts throughout the world.

2. IN THE BEGINNING: DEFINING NATIONAL PARKS

CNPPA has been collecting information on the world's protected areas since 1959. At that time, the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations at the suggestion of IUCN authorized the compilation of the first World

List of National Parks and Equivalent Reserves which was published in two parts in 1961 and 1962. This initiative was endorsed by resolution of the UN General Assembly at its Sixteenth Session in December 1962 on "Economic Development and Nature Conservation".

The First World Conference on National Parks at Seattle, Washington in 1962 endorsed the desirability of United Nations sponsorship of successive editions of the list, but subject to criteria for inclusion established by CNPPA being applied.

In the light of this, the Secretary-General of the United Nations in 1963 requested CNPPA to prepare a second edition of the list which was subsequently published in 1971. It is important to note that efforts of IUCN at this time as reflected in the UN List and at the First World Conference were focussed primarily on the national park category.

To assist in the preparation of the second edition of the UN List, its compilers had the benefit of a resolution defining "national park" adopted by the 10th General Assembly of IUCN held at New Delhi in 1969. This resolution, with minor amendments made at the 11th General Assembly in 1972, has remained the basis for the "national park" category in subsequent UN Lists. The definition is as follows:

"CONSIDERING the importance given by the United Nations to the national park concept, as a sensible use of natural resources,

AND CONSIDERING the increasing use which has been made during these last few years in some countries of the term "national park" to designate areas with increasingly different status and objectives.

THE 10TH GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF IUCN MEETING IN NEW DELHI IN NOVEMBER 1969 RECOMMENDS that all governments agree to reserve the term "national park" to areas answering the following characteristics and to ensure that their local authorities and private organizations wishing to set aside nature reserves do the same:

A National Park is a relatively large area:

- where one or several ecosystems are not materially altered by human exploitation and occupation, where plant and animal species, geomorphological sites and habitats are of special scientific, educative and recreative interest or which contains a natural landscape of great beauty and
- where the highest competent authority of the country has taken steps to prevent or to eliminate as soon as possible exploitation or occupation in the whole area and to enforce effectively the respect of ecological, geomorphological or aesthetic features which have led to its establishment and
- where visitors are allowed to enter, under special conditions, for inspiration, educative, cultural and recreative purposes.

Governments are accordingly REQUESTED not to designate as "national park":

- a scientific reserve which can be entered only by special permission (strict nature reserve),

- a natural reserve managed by a private institution or a lower authority without some type of recognition and control by the highest competent authority of the country,

- a "special reserve" as defined by the African Convention of 1968 (fauna or flora reserve, game reserve, bird sanctuary, geological or forest reserve, etc),

- an inhabited and exploited area where landscape planning and measures taken for the development of tourism have led to the setting up of "recreation areas" where industrialization and urbanization are controlled and where public outdoor recreation takes priority over the conservation of ecosystems (parc naturel regional, nature park, Naturpark, etc). Areas of this description which may have been established as "National Parks" should be redesignated in due course."

On this basis, the second edition of the UN List of National Parks and Equivalent Reserves in 1971, like the first, concentrated on listing national parks according to the definition essentially on the Yellowstone model of nature not modified to any significant extent by human occupation other than for controlled tourism. Prerequisites for listing were that the area:

i) have a statutory basis giving it sufficiently strict protection;

ii) be of a certain minimum size;

iii) be adequately staffed and provided with a big enough annual budget for its maintenance to ensure that statutory protection can be effectively applied.

In addition to "national parks" in terms of the New Delhi resolution, the list included "equivalent reserves" defined as "those areas which, although not specifically designated as national parks, qualified for inclusion in the International List as significant areas which were given equal protection and which correspond to the definition given in the London Convention. The list would not include, on the other hand, many reserves such as those set aside for such purposes as the protection of forests, historic monuments or special game species."

3. EXPANDING THE RANGE OF CONSERVATION LANDS

Realisation that the existing definitions for inclusion in the United Nations List were restricted mainly to national parks, and were not giving adequate recognition to other methods of achieving protection of nature, led IUCN through CNPPA to undertake a comprehensive review of categories, objectives and criteria for protected areas.

The final report (5) on the subject was published by IUCN in 1978 and this provided the framework of categories used for subsequent UN Lists, including the most recently published 1985 United Nations List of National Parks and Protected Areas.

The broadening of categories from the Yellowstone-model national park and the strict nature reserve recognized that there are other legitimate means of pursuing the goals of nature conservation. These include those situations where, because of millenia of human occupation, little possibility remains of preserving "pure" nature but where, by appropriate planning mechanisms and other controls, human use and conservation of nature could co-exist. Other types of areas considered were those where there were outstanding natural values in, say, a coastal or lakeshore situation where the area is adequate to accommodate tourism development along with nature conservation.

The rationale for this broader approach was explained in this manner (5): "The maintenance and development of the human habitat requires that some areas be retained in their wild state. The quality of water, the maintenance of genetic materials, the protection of scenic and aesthetic areas and the opportunity to enjoy and appreciate natural heritage, all depend upon the conservation of natural areas.

"Other renewable natural resources include wood products, building materials, wild animal products (including fish), grazing from natural grasslands, and water for agriculture, industry, domestic use, and energy which can be produced on a sustained-yield basis.

"Logically, some of these benefits can be received from natural areas or wildlands in perpetuity if management is properly designed and implemented. However, there are some types of benefits which compete with one another; for example, it is physically and biologically difficult to remove wood products and study natural ecosystems on the same area... Controlled tourism and species conservation can be compatible in both the terrestrial and marine environments.

"Management categories can be designed and implemented so that each addresses a compatible set of benefits, without the pursuit of any one benefit ruling out the possibility of receiving other benefits...

"Even among generally compatible activities, conflicts may arise during particular seasons or on specific sites such as during nesting or calving periods or at critical habitats. These types of conflicts can be treated through a zoning system or a periodic restricted activity system.

"Each benefit is related to specific objectives of management, such as the protection of rare or endangered species or habitats, the conservation of natural features of aesthetic value, and the conservation of areas where renewable resources can be utilized on a sustained-yield basis. Ideally all objectives and activities are related to environmental protection and to economic and social development.

"Areas which are managed to meet specified compatible conservation objectives can be considered to be 'protected areas'; they can be classified according to the objectives for which they are being managed. In contrast, however, the specific means required to meet the objectives of conservation will depend upon each particular situation and will vary with cultural, institutional, political and economic considerations.

"Conservation categories provide the basis for clearly incorporating conservation into development (eco-development)... Viewed in this way, conservation categories become means for sustained development.

"Taken together, these categories can be administered as a unified national system of conservation areas. In practice, the categories are generally divided among various divisions of central government; some of the categories may be administered by state, provincial or even private or corporate institutions... What is important, however, is that a specified institution is made responsible and empowered to provide for the appropriate management of the resources."

4. THE CATEGORIES ADOPTED

The end product of the 1978 report was a decision by CNPPA to adopt 10 categories of areas divided into three groups:

A. Those categories for which CNPPA and CMC take responsibility to monitor the status of each conservation area and for which CNPPA takes a responsibility to provide technical advice as requested. These are:

I	Scientific Reserve/Strict Nature Reserve
II	National Park
III	Natural Monument/Natural Landmark
IV	Nature Conservation Reserve/Managed Nature Reserve/Wildlife Sanctuary/
V	Protected Landscape or Seascape

B. Those categories which are of particular importance to IUCN as a whole and are generally found in most nations, but would not be considered exclusively within the scope of CNPPA.

VI	Resource Reserve
VII	Anthropological Reserve/Natural Biotic Area
VIII	Multiple Use Management Area/Managed Resource Area

C. Those categories which form part of international programmes and which have specific relevance for nature conservation yet may, in many cases, already receive protection under a previous category. CNPPA and CMC may be called upon to monitor these categories and to provide special expertise in cooperation with other institutions with which IUCN has consultative status.

IX	Biosphere Reserves
X	World Heritage Sites (Natural)

The 1985 UN List covers the following categories:

I	Strict Natural Reserves
II	National Parks
III	Natural Monuments
IV	Managed Nature Reserves
V	Protected Landscapes
IX	Biosphere Reserves
X	World Heritage Sites

Consistent with the New Delhi definition and the approach of listing areas according to the IUCN/CNPPA definitions, areas given the same designation nationally, may appear under different categories in the UN List. While most national parks are listed under Category II "National Parks", some appear under other categories. For example, Hoge Veluwe National Park in the Netherlands is listed under Category IV "Managed Nature Reserves" and Krkonose National Park in Czechoslovakia and the United Kingdom national parks are listed under Category V "Protected Landscapes".

5. THE PROTECTED LANDSCAPES CATEGORY

The important contribution which can be made to nature conservation as well as to protection of visual values by the protected landscapes category was recognized, not only in its inclusion as a separate category of protected area, but by the inclusion of the category in the UN List.

The description of Category V Protected Landscape included in the 1978 CNPPA report was:

"In many areas of the world, distinctive landscape patterns are created by the integration of specific natural and cultural features that present aesthetically attractive land and water settings. These may result through traditional land use practices of a cultural group in response to their environment while in others land use practices have retained relatively large and scenic natural or semi-natural areas near urban centres.

"At the same time, increasing population and leisure time and expanding urban areas are creating demand for additional recreation and tourism areas and facilities in aesthetic environments for citizens and visitors.

"The management and protection of these natural and cultural areas is of importance from both a recreational use stand-point, as well as from a scientific point of view because of their potential as reservoirs of genetic material and for their social customs evidenced through land use practices, which are disappearing under modern technology."

This description was modified during the III World Congress on National Parks in Bali in 1982 and the definition of Category V - Protected Landscape or Seascape which appears in the 1985 UN List is as follows:

"The scope of areas that fall within this category is necessarily broad because of the wide variety of semi-natural and cultural landscapes that occur within various nations. This may be reflected in two types of areas:

- those whose landscapes possess special aesthetic qualities which are a result of the interaction of man and land; and
- those that are primarily natural areas managed intensively by man for recreational and tourism uses.

"In the former case, these landscapes may demonstrate certain cultural manifestations such as customs, beliefs, social organization, or material traits as reflected in land use patterns. These landscapes are characterized by either scenically attractive or aesthetically unique patterns of human settlement. Traditional land use practices associated with agriculture, grazing, and fishing are dominant. The area is large enough to ensure the integrity of the landscape pattern.

"The latter case often includes natural or scenic areas found along coastlines and lake shores, in hilly or mountainous terrain, or along the shores of rivers, often adjacent to tourist highways or population centres; many will have the potential to be developed for a variety of outdoor recreational uses with national significance.

"In some cases, the area may be privately held and the use of either central or delegated planning control would be necessary to ensure the perpetuation of both the land use and the life style. Means of government assistance might be required to improve the standard of living while maintaining the natural quality of the site through appropriate management practices. In other instances, the areas are established and managed under public ownership, or a combination of public and private ownership."

The recent new policy statement on wildlands by the World Bank also uses the IUCN categories paper as a framework and provides another definition of protected landscapes (6). These: "are areas which have often been significantly modified by people, but which still contain important wildland resources. Traditional land uses, including fishing, grazing and some agriculture, are often permitted to accommodate the needs and interests of local populations. Land use control is often at the local government level."

Of all the definitions, this had the advantage of brevity, clarity and breadth to cover a wide range of situations. It is significant and important that the concept of protected landscapes is recognized by international agencies involved in nature conservation (IUCN) and development (the World Bank).

Before leaving the question of definitions of protected landscapes, it is appropriate in a European setting to look at a resolution of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on the European terminology for protected areas adopted in 1973 (7). The resolution recognized that "measures taken or to be taken must be harmonized if a truly European network of protected areas for conservation of landscapes, habitats and species and for recreating and research purposes, is to be created." It went on to recommend governments of member states "to use every available means to reinforce protective measures for existing 'protected areas' and study possibilities of establishing new areas" and to recommend that governments take into consideration the criteria defining the four categories listed in the appendix to the resolution.

The appendix to the Council of Europe resolution lists Categories C and D which could be construed as coming within CNPPA's Category V. The relevant Council of Europe definitions are:

Category C

"Areas would be assigned to this category mainly on account of their cultural and aesthetic value, protection of the landscape and the ecological balance being taken into consideration. However, these areas may be of subsidiary recreational value.

"Traditional human activities are allowed, subject to certain rules; some non-traditional activities are tolerated but strictly controlled.

"As this category is often of relevance to human recreation, some recreational provision as well as non-motorised public movement are permitted in clearly-defined zones on condition that they are in accordance with the area's aims."

Category D

"The areas in this category are usually large tracts of land which are primarily intended for recreation but where the principles of nature conservation are observed. They may include natural monuments, private estates, village etc. Such areas are therefore primarily of recreational value (rest and relaxation) and also of cultural, aesthetic and natural value.

"Planning an area for recreational purposes will entail some amenity provision (for cultural, sporting and recreational pursuits). Traditional and/or new human activities are normally permitted on condition that they are compatible with the area's aims. Non-motorised public access is generally unrestricted but may be controlled in certain zones of particular interest (natural monuments, flora, fauna, etc.). Motorised traffic is controlled in accordance with the aims of protection."

6. LANDSCAPE AND NATURE CONSERVATION

In the context of discussing "protected landscapes" it is appropriate to discuss the term "landscape". Landscape is often equated with scenery. Indeed, among the definitions of "landscape" in the Shorter Oxford Dictionary is "a prospect of inland scenery, such as can be taken in at a glance from one point of view", while an alternative definition is simply "inland natural scenery".

The International Federation of Landscape Architects (IFLA) has not yet produced an agreed definition of landscape, but the Federation Yearbook says it is concerned with "conservation of the landscape....and the maintenance of a correct balance between man and nature." (8) The twin components of people and nature are also identified in an IFLA information leaflet which says, "landscape is the environment we experience....the interaction of natural resources and people's needs." (9) In a series of papers on endangered landscapes published in 1985 in conjunction with IFLA, one contributor described landscape as "an aesthetically and biologically productive ecosystem." (10)

In New Zealand legislation, landscape is mentioned in close relationship with natural ecosystems in the Reserves Act of 1977. This Act has as a goal "the preservation of representative samples of all classes of natural ecosystems and landscapes which in the aggregate gave New Zealand its own recognizable character". (11)

To help assess the representativeness of major ecosystem types, New Zealand has been divided into ecological districts. Each ecological district is "a local part of New Zealand where geological, topographical, climatic and biological features and processes, including the broad cultural pattern, interrelate to produce a characteristic landscape and range of biological communities." (12)

These definitions and the New Zealand legislation rightly indicate a much deeper meaning of landscape than simply scenery, while recognizing that there are significant scenic values in landscapes.

In discussing the New Zealand occupied rural landscape, the Queen Elizabeth II National Trust said this of landscape and its character: "Landscape character is the distinctive quality of a landscape that has resulted from a variety of natural and man-made events and processes. It is expressed in the landscape which we see: in both the form (or shape) of the land and its cover (what is on it, e.g. vegetation, buildings). At one extreme, the cover can be entirely natural (wilderness), and at the other, man-made. Usually, however, it is a complex combination of both." (13)

This symposium is to discuss landscapes which have or deserve to have some form of protected status which safeguards the cultural and natural values which set them apart. In this context protected landscapes thus have significant value when they made their own unique contribution to nature conservation in a valid rather than cosmetic manner. They need to be seen as complementing other categories of protected areas, not in any way as second best or less but as valid protected areas in their own right.

In practice, the effectiveness of the protected landscape concept relies on legal and/or planning mechanisms affecting land which remains in private ownership. This is an increasingly attractive option for achieving conservation goals, as it avoids the transfer of private land to government ownership with all that that entails - in negative reaction to government land acquisition and in the financial cost to the State in purchase of compensation and subsequent management.

The protected landscape category recognizes that in many situations nature has long been under the modifying influence of thousands of years of human occupation. It recognizes that in such situations it is important to preserve those natural values that remain.

The category also recognizes that much past human impact has produced a harmonious blend of nature and development which deserves preservation for its intrinsic worth and as a demonstration that rural development and nature conservation can go hand in hand. Indeed, more heed to the benefits of such a blend could avoid the adverse impact on the environment of much modern rural development which places more emphasis on technology and large-scale operations than on the need for balance with nature.

The World Bank has emphasized this need for balance in addressing conservation problems of the developing world; it is equally valid for the more developed nations.

The importance of areas with a combination of natural and cultural values is also recognized under the World Heritage Convention which was adopted by the General Conference of Unesco in 1972 and to which many States have now adhered. It emphasizes the importance of linking protection of both the cultural and the natural heritage, as well as introducing the specific notion of a "world heritage" whose importance transcends political or geographical boundaries.

Interestingly, while Article 1 in defining the "cultural heritage" includes as potential World Heritage sites "works of man and the combined works of nature and of man", there is no similar linkage in Article 2 defining the "natural heritage". However, the operational guidelines for the implementation of the World Heritage Convention say that "in keeping with the spirit of the Convention, State Parties should as far as possible endeavour to include in their submissions properties which derive their outstanding universal value from a particularly significant combination of cultural and natural features." (4)

The World Heritage Committee which administers the Convention on behalf of the State Parties is at present reviewing the guidelines to recognize to an even greater extent the cultural/natural combination so integral to some potential World Heritage Sites.

As already noted, the category of Protected Landscape should be seen as complementary to other categories of protected areas. Its main distinction from strict nature reserves and national parks is that it is not so much a tool to preserve biological diversity and representative samples of natural ecosystems as it is to conserve, in a cultural setting, quasi-natural human landscapes. Above all, the Category V Protected Landscape should not be seen as an easy option for a Category II National Park which is largely unmodified but which is subject to some resource pressure.

Such a relatively unmodified national park should retain its Category II classification, with every effort being made to control and contain and, where practicable, to eliminate outside resource pressures. The need for some degree of compromise to meet the particular pressures, particularly in some developing countries, is recognized in the introduction to the 1985 UN List. It says that "it is recognized that within the boundaries of certain national parks there are existing villages, towns, communications networks and the ongoing activities connected with them. Provided that these areas do not occupy a significant part of the land and are de facto zoned and so arranged that they do not disturb the effective protection of the remaining area, they will not be considered as a basis for exclusion from this category."

An example of this type of Category II National Park is Sagarmatha (Mt Everest) National Park in Nepal. Physically inside but legally excluded from the boundaries of this park of 124,300 ha are a number of villages with a total population of some 3000 people. There is some limited cultivation outside the village exclusions and there is some grazing on high altitude pastures as well as controlled use of some forest produce, but the impact on the total area of the park is small and, as a result, it remains predominantly natural and therefore qualifies as a Category II National Park. Were it to be reclassified as a Category V Protected Landscape, there would always be a risk that this would encourage expansion of agricultural, pastoral and forestry use with consequent loss of natural qualities.

Summed up, Category V Protected Landscapes have their own niche in the hierarchy of protected areas recognized by IUCN. They stand in their own right, not serving as alternatives to other categories, but complementing other categories and playing their part in protecting one element of the spectrum of conservation lands.

7. EXTENT OF USE OF THE CATEGORY

The existing coverage of Category V Protected Landscapes is covered more specifically in the complementary pre-symposium paper prepared by the Protected Areas Data Unit (PADU) of IUCN's Conservation Monitoring Centre (CMC) while the legal aspects of their establishment and management are covered in the paper from IUCN's Environmental Law Centre (ELC).

In this paper some relevant aspects of the geographical coverage are discussed along with some of the differing approaches to establishment and management to provide some examples of the range of types and locations of protected landscapes there are and the range of legal and management mechanisms used.

The 1985 United Nations List of National Parks and Protected Areas records a total of 2514 protected areas in Categories I to V with a total area of 423,774,398 hectares. Of these Category V Protected Landscape or Seascape accounts for 380 or 10.8% of the total number and 19,586,625 hectares or 4.6% of the total area.

The continental spread of Category V areas is as follows:

AFRICA	Angola, Ethiopia, South Africa, Uganda, Zimbabwe
ASIA	China, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand
AUSTRALIA/OCEANIA	Australia
EUROPE	Austria, Belgium Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Yugoslavia.
NORTH AMERICA	United States of America
SOUTH AMERICA	Costa Rica, Ecuador, Paraguay, Uruguay.

There will almost certainly be some differences between the numbers and area of Category V Protected Areas quoted in this paper from the 1985 UN List and the up to date information in the PADU paper as the classification of areas into categories is not an exact science and from time to time reclassifications take place. However, the number and range of Category V areas is clearly significant as is the geographical spread and concentration in Europe.

8. SOME SAMPLES

In discussing some sample areas, a number have been chosen to illustrate types of Category V areas, protection and problems. The choice has been governed by personal knowledge of the areas chosen and, clearly, the symposium will be considering a much wider and more representative range of protected landscapes.

DARTMOOR NATIONAL PARK is an example from the United Kingdom. Established in 1951 with an area of 91,300 hectares, Dartmoor typifies what has been described as "the challenge in the UK to develop conservation policies in a relatively small and very densely populated country with very little unaltered natural environment, but where there is a strong demand for conservation action. Since the total protection of extensive areas of unaltered natural environment is not an option in the UK, it has been necessary to find ways of integrating conservation with other land uses. It has also been necessary to coordinate as far as possible conservation action between the public and voluntary sectors." (14)

Most of the land in Dartmoor National Park is in private ownership as is the case with all of the "national parks" in England and Wales which are, of course, not national parks of IUCN's Category II but are classified as Category V Protected Landscapes. The UK parks have significant resident populations in towns and villages, small industries, working farms and the harmonious way in which villages, farms, woodlands and moorlands fit into the scene provides much of their appeal.

While most land is in private ownership, some areas of particular significance for protection or public enjoyment may be purchased from private owners, more often than not by non-government bodies like the National Trust, possibly with grants from the Countryside Commission.

Administration is by national park authorities which are special boards or committees of local government, one third of whose members are appointed by the government after consultation with the Countryside Commission.

The nature conservation significance of Dartmoor is demonstrated by the fact that within the park are 25 Sites of Special Scientific Interest, three National Nature Reserves and two Forest Nature Reserves, with several field study centres where organizations such as the Nature Conservancy Council and the University of Exeter undertake research.

Pressures include tourism use which is especially heavy around prime natural and cultural features, a trend towards more intensive farming putting moorland areas under threat of development, use of parts for military training etc.

The long road towards establishment of a protected landscape in the form of a HOHE TAUERN NATIONAL PARK in Austria identifies, in addition to the tensions between development and conservation, the problem posed by differing governmental jurisdictions under a federal system.

Efforts to establish a national park can be traced back to 1909 with a major initiative in 1913 soon after which a nature conservation association and an alpine club began to purchase property for its protection. In 1935, the Karnten state government declared a conservation zone and, after the breakdown of plans to establish a larger national park including land in other states of Austria, the Karnten government acted in 1981 in relation to land in that state and in 1983 a Hohe Tauern National Park was legally established. Salzburg state followed suit with the Salzburg National Park Hohe Tauern Law in 1984 and the state of Tyrol also moved in relation to some 70,000 hectares within its boundaries.

Of the 250,000 hectares proposed to be in the three-state protected area, the Nature Reserve Association owns 3400 hectares and the Austrian Alpine Club 30,800 hectares. The protected area also includes several nature reserves, protected landscapes and natural monuments established by the Salzburg and Karnten state governments. Much of the land, however, remains in private ownership and effective conservation will largely rely on planning mechanisms and landowner motivation and cooperation in what is predominantly a land use pattern of sheep and cattle grazing. Apart from the preservation/farm production issues and the inter-state issue, the Hohe Tauern protected area concept has also generated major debate over hydroelectric and tourism development and the inappropriate use of the "national park" category in the name of the site.

An area in the People's Republic of China not included in the 1985 UN List but which appropriately fits the Category V concept is the MOUNT TAISHAN SCENIC BEAUTY AND HISTORIC INTEREST ZONE. A substantial area located just north of Tai'an City in Shandong Province, Taishan is preeminent among China's sacred mountains being of great significance to Taoists, Buddhists and Confucians alike. The fact that it has been the subject of pilgrimages by many Chinese emperors and by significant figures in Chinese history from Confucius to Mao Zedung has left its mark on nature. Some 1800 examples of poems and historic episodes are recorded on rocks in what is a remarkable outdoor collection of calligraphy covering many centuries.

Taishan's rugged character rising from the vast Shandong Plain belies the mountain's modest altitude of 1545 metres. Officials were appointed "to protect the mountain" from the period of the Zhou Dynasty (770-476 BC) but thousands of years of human use have modified the vegetation greatly. However, thousands of years of plantings using species occurring naturally in the area have retained or restored a natural character to the majority of the protection zone. Substantial and impressive areas such as the Rear Rocky Basin have a grandeur and wildness that retains what must have been the natural character of Taishan and supports a range of indigenous flora and fauna.

Taishan is one of some 500 scenic and historic zones in China designated at the city level with nearly 100 at provincial level and 44 at the national level. Of these, Taishan was chosen by the central government on the recommendation of the Ministry of Urban and Rural Reconstruction and Environmental Protection as a first priority for nomination as a World Heritage site with its combination of natural and cultural values, a notable feature being that the cultural values derive from the area's physical characteristics.

Management of the Taishan protected area has its problems, not least stemming from the fact that it attracts some 3 million visitors annually, most of them Chinese coming as pilgrims or as sightseers to climb its 7000 steps on the route of imperial pilgrimages, visit its temples, study the calligraphy and experience the sunrise. A consequence is that the variety of historic and natural features have been supplemented by food and accommodation services, souvenir and photo stalls as well as public communication facilities, a cable car in a nearby valley and road access from the foot of the mountain to the cablecar.

Central government laws and local government regulations now control activities in the scenic and historic interest zone and increasing attention is being paid to management planning and the need for more effective management. A coordinating administrative committee draws together the various arms of government to achieve the sometimes conflicting goals of protection and public use and enjoyment. Positive moves are being taken to conserve endangered fish species and to eliminate quarrying by local farmers by a mixture of prevention and provision of alternative sites. There are some villages within the zone but these are located in an outlying area where the prime interest is geological and their presence does not impact adversely on the core area of Taishan of greatest natural and cultural significance.

Another Asian example of a Category V area where there is a major emphasis on tourism development is the FUJI-HAKONE-IZU NATIONAL PARK in Japan. Established in 1936 and covering an area of 123,161 ha, this includes state and public land as well as private land. It includes Japan's highest mountain - Fuji - rising directly from the plains, as well as other volcanic mountains such as Hakone, a series of lakes and the Izu Peninsula and island chain.

Administration is shared between the national environmental agency, the forestry agency and four prefectural governments, the area being subject to the National Parks Act under which development is to be controlled to preserve places of scenic beauty. There is a large resident population, intense pressure from tourism, and the forests are managed. In spite of these pressures, there are claimed to be some areas of virgin forest and the park supports a varied flora and fauna.

A different type of Protected Landscape is the MIDMAR PUBLIC RESORT NATURE RESERVE administered by the Natal Parks, Game and Fish Preservation Board of the Natal provincial administration in the Republic of South Africa. All government-owned, it covers 2831 ha of which 1316 ha are land and 1516 ha are water, mainly a waterbody impounded by the Midmar Dam. Established in 1986, this reserve gives natural features total protection. It is a veldt area of mixed grassland being used both for recreational development and protection of native species of animals and birds almost all of which have been introduced to the area.

Recreational facilities include tours to views the animals, boat tours, horse riding, boat hire swimming, bowls, squash, tennis and fishing, and there is a museum, restaurant and a range of picnic and associated visitor services attracting over 500,000 visitors a year. This recreational use exists in association with the protected fauna, including the square-lipped rhinoceros, Burchell's zebra, blesbok, red hartebeest, impala, reedbuck, springbok, black wildebeest and eland. Endangered species are oribi and wattled crane.

The development of recreation and conservation areas around dams established for hydroelectricity and/or irrigation also account for some of the national recreation areas in the United States listed as Category V Protected Landscapes. The national seashores, national lakeshores and scenic rivers also administered by the US National Park Service are other examples of Category V areas.

CAPE COD NATIONAL SEASHORE is one of them, established in 1961. It covers 18,013 ha of which 6,827 ha are tidal. Cape Cod has many natural values in its coastal ecosystems with estuaries, saltmarshes, meadows and dunes supporting a range of coastal vegetation, some 34 mammal species and 400 bird species, many of them migrants, and 21 species of reptiles and amphibians. Sea turtles occur in the marine waters. With these natural values are many cultural sites from past Indian settlement and from the arrival of the Pilgrims prior to their settlement at Plymouth, Massachusetts some 360 years ago.

Apart from the resident population, there are an estimated 5 million visitors a year, mostly coming in their own vehicles including 4000 oversand vehicles. Management problems stem from the impact of visitors and vehicles on sensitive ecosystems, the effects of the 600 private properties and the impact of water use on water quality and water withdrawal on freshwater ecosystems.

Management has zoned the area into natural, historic, development and special use zones, the latter including landscape management and private development subzones. Federal government ownership accounts for 90% of the area, town ownership 5% and private ownership also 5%.

While several of the Category V areas discussed include significant water bodies, areas which could be regarded as Protected Seascapes are noticeably absent from the UN List. One area that might be considered a Category V Seascape, the Great Barrier Marine Park in Australia, has now been classified as a Category VIII Multiple-Use Management Area, at the request of the Authority. Clearly, the application of Category V to the marine environment has not yet been tested.

A recurring theme in Protected Landscapes is finding ways of marrying production and protection goals, and of integrating conservation and development. These issues are also being applied appropriately in many situations outside defined Protected Landscapes. The work of the Queen Elizabeth II National Trust in New Zealand is contributing to landscape protection through the negotiation of covenants over private lands which, along with public reserves, conservation covenants made with government and sensitive local government planning schemes combine to protect landscape and natural values. As these integrated approaches to conservation have increasing impact, specific landscapes are being given protection and may well merit listing as Category V areas.

A quite different New Zealand situation not listed, but which could deserve listing, is a totally government-owned recreation reserve known as the Te Paki Farm Park. At the northern tip of the North Island, it is an area which was farmed as a private property for many years but was purchased by the New Zealand government in 1967 for a variety of reasons - to protect its fine beaches, historic and cultural values and to develop for more intensive farming and settlement of landless farmers. Later realization of its range of values led to a decision to retain it in public ownership and to protect its spiritual and cultural values to the Maori people and its recreational values, while farming it as a profitable enterprise and demonstration area to show that recreation can be compatible with farming and that farm development can be in harmony with the environment.

These are a few of the range of types of areas listed under Category V or which could merit listing. The Symposium will undoubtedly bring to light other examples of operational protected landscapes.

9. THE FUTURE

IUCN and the Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas welcome this initiative taken by those who conceived and planned this International Symposium on Protected Landscapes. It is a timely opportunity to recognize the diversity of protected areas and to identify how nature conservation can be achieved more effectively and compatibly with cultural values and human use.

There are many examples of attractive and productive cultural landscapes, from the rice terraces of the Indonesian island of Bali to the wheatfields of Kathmandu Valley in Nepal. But these *per se* are not protected landscapes. The challenge of this symposium is to draw from experience of participants and pool ideas and experiences to clarify the types and goals of Protected Landscapes and Seascapes, to identify the range of policy and administrative mechanisms and to suggest how effective management can be achieved.

Clearly, Protected Landscapes have an important role to play in nature conservation, complementing other types of protected area categories. As one writer has said, wilderness may be the focus of some protected areas, but it may also not be. A royal garden, a rural landscape, a sacred forest or mountain might just as appropriately be considered worthy of protection as national treasures. The key concept here is heritage, not wilderness. From this perspective, national parks in the US reflect the value which Americans place on wilderness as an element of American landscape and American historical experience. But other lands have different historical experiences and have different concerns about the images values and places they want to preserve and transmit. In much of the world, the harmonious interaction of people and land and the rural landscapes thus created and maintained may be a far more pertinent heritage." (16)

At the same time it is important to recall the request of the 10th IUCN General Assembly that the term "national park" not be applied to protected landscapes and other categories that do not meet those specific criteria.

This symposium underlines the extent of the application of the protected landscape concept. It would be appropriate and helpful to IUCN and to world conservation to bring forward from this symposium to the 17th General Assembly of IUCN in San Jose, Costa Rica in 1988 proposals which might give greater emphasis to the concept and lead the way for further discussion at the fourth international congress on national parks and protected areas scheduled for 1992 in Panama.

On a more detailed basis, CNPPA would welcome guidance in terms of the definition of Category V Protected Landscapes and the application of this category to the wide variety of areas which may qualify for inclusion. The 1978 categories paper is now being revised and results of this symposium will be used to clarify the Category V portion of the document.

As the examples of protected landscapes quoted show, there are many problems in establishment and effective management stemming from differing jurisdictions, ownership and the problems of coordination and achieving harmony between conflicting aspirations and uses. Guidelines for establishment, planning and management of protected landscapes would clearly be another valuable product of this symposium.

The experience shared in the symposium could be extremely valuable in extending the concept of sensitive planning and management to integrate conservation and development beyond defined protected landscapes to the total environment.

The chairman of IUCN's Commission on Environmental Planning has rightly said, "The conceptual polarity between green spaces, nature preserves and grey places, the urban realm, must be buried. Conservation must extend beyond the borders of our ecological reserves, our national parks and wilderness area, to embrace the totality of human settlement. Conservation can no longer be perceived as a constraint against development but rather as an integral part of the development process itself." (17)

Protected landscapes are not an optional extra. They are an important component of the spectrum of the world's protected areas.

The first statement in the Declaration of Bali (18) adopted by participants in the World National Parks Congress, Bali, Indonesia in October 1982 said this: "People are a part of nature. Their spiritual and material well-being depends upon the wisdom applied to the protection and use of living resources...."

The Declaration went on to outline some fundamental actions, the first of which was: "Expand and strengthen the global and regional networks of national parks and other protected areas to give lasting security to representative and unique ecosystems; as full a range as possible of Earth's biotic diversity including wild genetic resources; natural areas important for scientific research; natural areas of cultural and spiritual value...."

This symposium provides the opportunity to apply collective wisdom to the challenge of expansion and effective management of Protected Landscapes and Seascapes. IUCN and CNPPA congratulate the Countryside Commission on convening the symposium, commend the Council of Europe, the British Council and the Lake District National Park Authority for their support and look forward to sharing in the products of this very timely and significant initiative.

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